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**ENGAGING IN SERVICE: THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN UNDERGRADUATE  
STUDENT ENGAGEMENT AND SOCIAL JUSTICE ATTITUDES**

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by

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## ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to describe the relationship between the extent and nature of undergraduate students' engagement in service organizations and undergraduate students' social justice attitudes. The undergraduate students in this study participated in co-curricular, service organizations that focused on a variety of social justice and civic concerns. Based on Kahu's (2013) conceptual framework of student engagement, a mixed-methods study with a quantitative emphasis (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004) was conducted in order to best address the research questions. The dependent variable, social justice attitudes, was measured using the Social Justice (SJ) scale from the Civic Attitudes and Skills Questionnaire (CASQ) (Moely, Mercer, Ilustre, Miron, & McFarland, 2002). Affective and cognitive engagement were measured by quantizing two open-ended questions that assessed students' feelings towards and learning as a result of their engagement in a service organization. These responses were coded on a scale of 1 (*low engagement*) to 3 (*high engagement*). Behavioral engagement was measured via two items: an effort scale of 1 (*very little effort*) to 10 (*considerable effort*) and an average of reported hours per week spent engaging in service organization activities. Students exhibited, on average, medium levels of affective, cognitive, behavioral (effort and time) engagement,  $M = 1.93$  ( $SD = 0.76$ ),  $M = 2.00$  ( $SD = 0.50$ ),  $M = 7.63$  ( $SD = 1.81$ ), and  $M = 3.00$  ( $SD = 1.88$ ), respectively. A linear regression was run to assess the relationship between scores on the student engagement measures and the SJ scale, while controlling for demographic characteristics (gender and college). The model was statistically significant ( $F(6, 79) = 2.59, p = .025$ ) and college was the only statistically significant predictor ( $t = -3.14, p = .002$ ) of social justice attitudes.

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## Chapter 1

### Introduction

*Liberal learning and scholarly investigations are indeed service to the nation. Yet the mission statement of almost every college and university in the country includes not just teaching and research, but service, too – a commitment that was never more needed than it is today.*

*Ernest L. Boyer, 1994*

Although Boyer's words to the Association of American Colleges' members occurred in 1994, they are still as relevant today as they were two decades ago. Boyer (1994) lamented some of the issues facing the country at the time: childhood poverty, sub-standard housing, homelessness, drug abuse, academic failure rates, pollution, and violence. These social justice issues stood out to Boyer because of the threat they posed to a healthy, democratic society. "How can the nation's campuses stay disengaged?" he asked (p. A48). Boyer described the "New American College" as one that took action and applied the scholarship originating from its professors and students to the nation's issues. He emphasized the need for higher education to be a public good where the effects of what happens on campuses can spread to neighborhoods and communities. Service, in Boyer's view, meant more than professors serving on internal committees and students volunteering on campus. He called on the higher education community to view service as "apply[ing] knowledge to real-life problems" to improve the state of our nation and the world (p. A48).

The application of knowledge beyond the confines of the ivory tower is an important and worthwhile endeavor for all faculty, staff, and especially students. The engagement students exhibit while in college forms the habits they will have as alumni, which makes the engagement in service and social justice issues especially important. As Kuh (2003) stated: “The very act of being engaged...adds to the foundation of skills and dispositions that is essential to live a productive, satisfying life after college” (p. 25). From the research conducted by Kuh and his research teams, it is widely accepted that how students behaviorally engage in their learning while in college matters towards the achievement of learning outcomes (Kuh, 2003, 2009; Kuh, Jankowski, Ikenberry, & Kinzie, 2014). Kuh’s (2003; 2009) research, although important to the field of student engagement, was limited in scope in that it solely focused on behavioral engagement.

Kuh’s (2003; 2009) definition of engagement as time, effort, and participation has an important place in the evolution of student engagement. Tyler is cited by Kuh (2009) as the first scholar to discuss student engagement in the literature with a “time on task” (p. 6) or behavioral view of student engagement. The definition evolved over time with such scholars as Astin (1977; 1991; 1993a; 1996; 1999), Tinto (1975, 1993), Chickering and Gamson (1987), and Kuh (2009) contributing to the discourse on student engagement. These scholars focused primarily on behavioral engagement (i.e. time, effort, and participation) in relation to learning outcomes, with some additions of research in cognitive engagement, such as deep learning in the National Survey of Student Engagement (NSSE) (Kuh, 2009). However, time, effort, and participation indicators are not enough to explain the impact of student engagement on learning outcomes. Behavior is one dimension of student engagement and focusing on only one dimension of engagement limits the use of results.

Recent research has adopted a more holistic view of student engagement, with Kahu's (2013) conceptual framework of student engagement becoming widely cited as the next stage in the evolution of student engagement research. Kahu (2013) defined student engagement as "a psycho-social process, influenced by institutional and personal factors, and embedded within a wider social context" (p. 768). The construct consists of three dimensions: affect, cognition, and behavior. Students' affective engagement consists of enthusiasm, interest, and belonging towards a task, person, or community. Cognitive engagement is comprised of deep learning and self-regulation. The behavioral aspects of engagement consist of time and effort, interaction, and participation (Kahu, 2013). Kahu's (2013) conceptual framework provides a more holistic measure that can be utilized to better understand the relationship of student engagement to the achievement of learning outcomes. Given how recent Kahu's (2013) conceptual framework and subsequent research have been published, the assertion that student engagement is a multidimensional construct consisting of affect, cognition, and behavior needs validation along with the other aspects of the conceptual framework, such as the influencers and consequences of the engagement.

The consequences of engagement, as Kahu (2013; 2014) called them, are more commonly referred to as learning outcomes. Higher education administrators set learning outcomes as a measure of what students should have achieved upon graduation. Learning outcomes are different for every institution but there are common themes among them. The National Leadership Council for Liberal Education and America's Promise (NLCLEAP) (2007) has promoted "21st century" skills students will need to be competitive in the global marketplace that provide a general overview of the major learning outcomes in higher education. The NLCLEAP (2007) established four learning outcomes that connect to these skills, which include

“knowledge of human cultures and the physical world, intellectual and practical skills, personal and social responsibility, and integrative learning” (p. 3). Of the four learning outcomes specified by the NLCLEAP (2007), the “personal and social responsibility” outcome (p. 3) is of prominent importance to many types of higher education institutions, particularly those who list social justice as a fundamental aspect of their mission and social justice attitudes as one of their undergraduate learning outcomes. Certainly, this is the learning outcome that stands out most prominently in light of Boyer’s (1994) argument to those in academia to feel a sense of responsibility for what happens outside the ivory tower. “Personal and social responsibility” encompasses “civic knowledge and engagement..., intercultural knowledge and competence, ethical reasoning and action, and foundations and skills for lifelong learning” (NLCLEAP, 2007, p. 3). Like Boyer (1994), the NLCLEAP (2007) urged that students need to engage with “society’s most urgent unsolved problems” and deeply consider their “responsibilities as human beings and citizens” (p. 38). In other words, students need to grapple with ideas and issues of equity and human rights not just in their assignments but also in their local and global communities.

One of the higher education contexts that is particularly focused on promoting the common good by grappling with social justice issues are Jesuit institutions. In Jesuit higher education institutions, the desire for students to grapple with ideas and issues of equity and human rights is fundamental to the social justice mission. Jesuit educators seek to increase the social justice attitudes of their students. Social justice attitudes are the “value[s] or belief[s], [that encompass] the idea that people should have equitable access to resources and protection of human rights” (Torres-Harding, Siers, & Olson, 2012, p. 78). Moely et al. (2002) operationalized social justice attitudes as the attitudes “concerning causes of poverty and misfortune and how social problems can be solved” (p. 18). Although personal and social responsibility is an

important learning outcome to many types of higher education institutions, social justice attitudes are distinctly important in Jesuit higher education because of the teachings of the founders of the Jesuit religious order (Boryczka & Petrino, 2012).

Social justice attitudes are not only important to Jesuit institutions in realizing their mission, but are also important to the creation of a just and peaceful democratic society. The country and the world are continually impacted by a lack of care and respect for others and the common good. The issues composing the list that Boyer (1994) used to draw empathy from his peers could all be used today. Within the United States, the recent spike in reported hate crimes after the November 2016 election (SPLC, 2016), the continued overrepresentation and poor treatment of minorities in incarceration (Petersilia, 1985; Scott III & Osho, 2015), and the commodification and lack of affordable housing in many of the United States' major cities (Rolnik, 2013) are just a few of the issues in the United States that demonstrate the need for equity-minded citizens to promote positive change and reform.

Social justice attitudes are increased through experiences in and outside of the classroom. Within courses, faculty use service-learning, case studies, guest speakers, group projects, and many other pedagogical tools to expand students' thinking. Beyond courses, co-curricular programs afford rich and diverse opportunities for students to think about and be confronted with social justice issues. To increase social justice attitudes, administrators find ways to incorporate diversity in campus programming, promote critical thinking in and beyond courses, and expose students to issues within their communities and the world.

Engagement in co-curricular programs, such as volunteering with service organizations, has been shown to promote positive outcomes in students (Astin & Sax, 1998). In their seminal study on the benefits of volunteering for undergraduate students, Astin and Sax (1998) found that

“participating in service during the undergraduate years substantially enhance[d] students’ academic development, life skill development, and sense of civic responsibility” (p. 251). Using Cooperative Institutional Research Program (CIRP) and College Student Survey (CSS) data, the researchers controlled for student input characteristics and college environment factors to isolate the short-term effect of service on outcomes. Participation in service was measured using a dichotomous variable (participated or did not participate) and three other areas of service involvement were explored: duration, sponsorship, and location of service involvement (Astin & Sax, 1998, p. 253). Although the results of this national study proved important to future research on the impact of participation in service on learning outcomes, how participation was operationalized limited the depth of understanding regarding the extent and nature of engagement in service. This is partially explained by the evolution of student engagement in the literature. As student engagement research has shifted to a holistic view, the research is still lagging on understanding if and to what extent the depth of student engagement matters towards the achievement of learning outcomes.

This study measured affective, cognitive, and behavioral student engagement and social justice attitudes in undergraduate students who participated in service organizations at a small, Jesuit, private liberal arts institution. Kahu’s (2013) conceptual framework of the three dimensions of student engagement were operationalized into a quantifiable measure in order to measure the extent and nature of student engagement and its relationship to social justice attitudes. Previous research utilizing Kahu’s (2013) conceptual framework has been exclusively qualitative in nature, limiting the use of the conceptual framework for large-scale program assessment. This study sought to contribute to the understanding of the extent and nature of student engagement and the relationship between affective, cognitive, and behavioral student

engagement and social justice attitudes. Although designed to measure student engagement in service organizations and its relationship to social justice attitudes, the items in this study are intended for broader use in quantitatively researching holistic undergraduate student engagement in all types of co-curricular programs.

### **Statement of the Problem**

Kahu (2013) proposed a new organization of student engagement than previously studied in the literature. Kahu's conceptual framework integrated several research perspectives on student engagement to organize student engagement situated between influencers and consequences and within a sociocultural context. Given how recent it was published, the framework needs further research to assess the validity of this conceptualization. This is one of many necessary research studies to deepen the understanding of the relationships between the constructs in the framework and its relevancy or irrelevancy to undergraduate student engagement.

### **Purpose of the Study**

The purpose of this study was to describe the relationship between undergraduate students' extent and nature of engagement in a service organization and undergraduate students' social justice attitudes. Students engage in these organizations at different levels and it is hypothesized that the level of that engagement matters towards the achievement of social justice attitudes. A comprehensive definition of student engagement was used to measure the



relationship between the extent and nature of student engagement in service organizations and social justice attitudes. This study operationalized Kahu's (2013) conceptual framework of the three dimensions of student engagement into a quantifiable measure for use by researchers interested in assessing the extent and nature of undergraduate students' engagement in service organizations as they relate to learning outcomes or consequences, such as social justice attitudes.

### **Research Questions**

1. For undergraduate students participating in a service organization, what is the extent of their social justice attitudes?
2. Do undergraduate students' social justice attitudes differ by gender and college within service organization types (i.e. within groups) or by service organization types (i.e. between groups)?
3. For undergraduate students participating in a service organization, what is the extent of their engagement?
4. How do undergraduate students experience their affective and cognitive engagement in service organizations?
5. What is the relationship between undergraduate students' engagement in service organizations and their social justice attitudes?

### **Significance of Study**

The primary significance of this study was operationalizing Kahu's (2013) conceptual framework of student engagement and researching the relationship between student engagement and social justice attitudes for students who participated in service organizations. This study measured the three dimensions of student engagement by asking open-ended questions that were

coded using a detailed rubric. The questions and rubric help to further define student engagement using Kahu's (2013) framework and provide a way to measure the construct for future research. Although designed for a measure of student engagement in service organizations, the items could also be used for other co-curricular programs. The questions ask students what they feel towards the service organization, what they learned from the service organization, and the time and effort they exhibited while in the service organization. Service organization could be interchanged with another context for co-curricular student engagement, such as student government, musical groups, or the school newspaper.

### **Definition of Terms**

#### **Learning outcomes**

Learning outcomes are “the personal changes or benefits that follow as a result of learning” (Nusche, 2008, p. 7). In Kahu's (2013) conceptual framework, proximal and distal consequences are synonymous with learning outcomes. Proximal consequences are organized into academic (learning and achievement) and social consequences (satisfaction and well-being). Distal consequences are organized into academic (retention, work success, and lifelong learning) and social consequences (citizenship and personal growth). This study researched the relationship between student engagement and one of the distal social consequences by operationalizing one important aspect of citizenship: social justice attitudes.

### **Service organizations**

Service, also known as community service,

“is the engagement of students in activities that primarily focus on the service being provided as well as the benefits the service activities have on the recipients...The students receive some benefits by learning more about how their service makes a difference in the lives of the service recipients” (Furco, 1996, p. 4).

Students in this study who engaged in service activities did so as part of service organizations. Service organizations are the co-curricular programs administered by the institution to promote student engagement and learning. They are funded and supported with resources from the institution, including an administrator who serves as an advisor. Each service organization has differing levels of administrative oversight, however, each organization has some form of student leadership to help organize and manage the organization and its activities. In this study, service organizations were the context for engagement. In order to research student engagement in respect to the context, students were asked about their affective, cognitive, and behavioral engagement as it related to the service organization of which they were a member.

### **Social justice attitudes**

Social justice attitudes are “value[s] or belief[s], [that encompass] the idea that people should have equitable access to resources and protection of human rights” (Torres-Harding, Siers, & Olson, 2012, p. 78). Moely et al. (2002) operationalized social justice attitudes as the attitudes “concerning causes of poverty and misfortune and how social problems can be solved” (p. 18) in order to create the Social Justice scale. The scale is part of the Civic Attitudes and Skills Questionnaire (CASQ) and is used in this study to measure social justice attitudes.

## **Student engagement**

Student engagement is “a psycho-social process, influenced by institutional and personal factors, and embedded within a wider social context” (Kahu, 2013, p. 768). The construct consists of three dimensions: affect, cognition, and behavior. This study operationalized Kahu’s definition of student engagement by quantizing responses that demonstrated the sub-dimensions of each engagement dimension: affect (enthusiasm, interest, and belonging), cognition (deep learning and self-regulation), and behavior (time and effort).

## **Assumptions, Limitations, and Delimitations**

### **Assumptions**

As described earlier, the context for this study was service organizations at a Jesuit higher education institution. The mission of the institution is, in part, to “[foster] a mature commitment to dignity of the human person, social justice, diversity, intercultural competence, global engagement, solidarity with the poor and vulnerable, and care for the planet” (Institution, 2017). Therefore, though not explicitly stated for all service organizations at the institution, this study assumed that an increase in social justice attitudes was a desirable learning outcome for all undergraduate students who participated in service organizations. This study also assumed that student engagement and social justice attitudes are measurable constructs, able to be assessed using self-reported measures.

### **Limitations**

The primary limitations of this study were sample size and the clustered data. Although over 6,000 students were emailed, service organization student leaders were contacted, and staff at the community service office promoted the completion of the questionnaire, only 129 students completed a significant portion of the questionnaire. Because of missing items, the sample size for the analyses was 80 undergraduate students. This limited the generalizability of the results as well as the statistical analyses that could be conducted with enough power to ensure confidence in the results. The undergraduate students in the study were also nested in service organizations as well as in majors of study. These two types of clusters were considered and differences were assessed by group on the dependent variable, social justice attitudes (see chapter 4 for test statistics and results).

### **Delimitations**

This study used self-reported measures to assess student engagement and social justice attitudes. There are other measures used in larger scale studies (e.g. the VALUEs rubrics) that rely on a combination of student assignments, observations, and other non-self-reported data (American Association of Colleges and Universities, 2010). However, this study used Kahu's (2013) conceptual framework with the intent of deepening the research and understanding of this more recent conceptualization of student engagement. Other measures designed with a different conception of student engagement would have changed the focus of the study. Student engagement is much more expansive than one service organization. However, the intent of the

study was not to test all aspects of the conceptual framework and their relationship to student engagement. The focus of the study, as Kahu (2013) recommended for future validation and research of the conceptual framework, was to deepen researchers' understandings of certain elements of the conceptual framework applied to different contexts.

Additionally, only student engagement in service organizations was studied, not service-learning. Service-learning is a more structured activity in which undergraduate students are often required to reflect on their experience and apply their direct service to other areas of their lives (Einfeld & Collins, 2008). Service participation may not yield as large of an effect size, as it does not typically require the same depth and breadth of reflection. Service-learning, while not researched in this study, may also increase faculty-student interaction, which has been shown to positively affect students' academic success (e.g. GPA, persistence, development) and learning outcomes (E. T. Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005). Service and not service-learning was chosen as the context in which to study student engagement because of the focus on studying co-curricular programs. The NSSE, which is used nationally at the institution level, focuses on classroom engagement and classroom experiences. There is a gap in the literature, discussed more in Chapter 2, in the study of students' engagement in service organizations and social justice attitudes. Additionally, studying service learning would have introduced additional influencers to student engagement, such as curriculum and teaching, which would have strayed from the intent of the study.

The last delimitation was the choice of one institution for the study. Students who participated in service organizations were sampled from a small, private, Jesuit, liberal arts institution in the Pacific Northwest. Although a multi-site study would have been more generalizable to students in all of Jesuit higher education or in all of higher education, the

conceptual framework is still in its infancy. The intent of this study was to operationalize the framework for one context with the goal of gaining insight into the framework, making adjustments, and expanding research to multi-institution studies.

## **Chapter 2**

### **Literature Review**

The review of literature examined research on undergraduate student engagement, service organizations, and social justice attitudes. Each section contains a definition, general overview, measurement practices, gaps in the literature, and relationships to other constructs in the study. The summary establishes how the gaps in the literature warrant the need for further study.

#### **Student Engagement**

In this study, student engagement is an independent variable that operationalizes students' affective, cognitive, and behavioral engagement in a service organization (Kahu, 2013). Kahu (2013) defined student engagement as "a psycho-social process, influenced by institutional and personal factors, and embedded within a wider social context" (p. 768). The construct consists of three dimensions: affect, cognition, and behavior. Students' affective engagement consists of enthusiasm, interest, and belonging towards a task, person, or community. Cognitive engagement is comprised of deep learning and self-regulation. The behavioral aspects of engagement consist of time and effort, interaction, and participation (Kahu, 2013). Each of these dimensions will be described in detail later in this section.

Institutions promote student engagement as a means of increasing the learning outcomes and academic success of students. Student engagement affects academic success (Astin, 1993; K. J. Nelson, Clarke, Stoodley, & Creagh, 2014; E. T. Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005) and the



achievement of learning outcomes (Kuh, 2009; Nelson et al., 2014). For example, students who engage with faculty, take first-year seminars, participate in learning communities, conduct undergraduate research, and serve their communities, either as a requirement for a course or on their own time, are more likely to persist and have higher GPAs (Kuh, 2008). Although an acknowledgement has existed in the research for more than a decade that student engagement matters (Nelson et al., 2014), the definition and operationalization differ. What follows is a history of student engagement from its start as a purely behavioral construct to the more recent holistic conception that accounts for behavior, cognition, and affect in addition to the context, predictors, and outcomes of undergraduate student engagement.

### **History of student engagement**

Student engagement and its use and measurement have evolved over time (Kahu, 2013; Kuh, 2009). The research into engagement has its roots in a behaviorist perspective. As Astin (1985) explained: “It is not...what the individual thinks or feels, but what the individual does,...that defines and identifies involvement” (p. 519). Cognitive and affective aspects of engagement were considered less important because what could be measured and readily assessed were students’ behaviors. A behaviorist view of engagement dominated the field into the 1990s. Tyler is cited by Kuh (2009) as the first scholar to discuss student engagement in the literature with a “time on task” (p. 6) or behavioral view of student engagement. Tyler’s phrasing was used synonymously with engaged learning with an emphasis on increasing the time students actively engaged in tasks in the classroom. The more students actively engaged, the higher their achievement (Hosford, 1984). Pace (1982) added to the construct by adding *quality* to the

measure of student effort (Kuh, 2009). Quality was an assessment of the effort that students put into their learning. As Pace (1982) explained, “some kinds of effort are potentially more educative than others” (p. 4) meaning that it was not enough to just spend time involved in tasks. The effort expended during time spent on a task was not equal across participants and assessment of time needed to go deeper to measure the continuum of quality that existed. A students’ time had meaning and depth by assessing the quality of the effort in educationally purposeful activities.

Astin (1977, 1991, 1993, 1996, 1999) continued the discourse on student engagement by using the term *student involvement*, which was “the amount of physical and psychological energy that the student devote[d] to the academic experience” (1999, p. 518). Involvement is engaging in educationally purposeful activities such as interacting with faculty, being a member of a student organization, or spending time on campus in the community. This type of involvement was predicted to lead to beneficial outcomes, such as persistence and a higher GPA. Although Astin’s theory was more specific as to what types of engagement benefited student outcomes, the engagement was still measured dichotomously as either participated or did not participate.

Tinto (1975, 1993) expanded the construct by researching student engagement according to two dimensions: social and academic integration. Social and academic integration are the extent to which students’ goals, intentions, and formal and informal learning environments align with their institutions. Tinto’s research focused mainly on social and academic integration as indicators of retention. The higher students’ academic and social integration, the more likely the institution will retain them. The integration measures were focused on behavioral indicators of integration, such as the length and number of faculty-student interactions or the number of extracurricular activities with which a student was engaged.

Around the same time period, Chickering and Gamson (1987) described principles of good practice for undergraduate education and detailed engagement activities that could improve student learning. The seven principles included:

(1) encourage[ing] contacts between students and faculty; (2) develop[ing] reciprocity and cooperation among students; (3) us[ing] active learning techniques; (4) giv[ing] prompt feedback; (5) emphasiz[ing] time on task; (6) communicat[ing] high expectations; and (7) respect[ing] diverse talents and ways of learning. (Chickering & Gamson, 1987, p. 2)

Chickering and Gamson's principles provided a clear, organized framework of good practices for increasing engagement and learning in the classroom. However, their principles, along with the other engagement research that came before, were focused heavily on theorizing and assessing behaviors in classrooms. Research on engagement outside of classrooms in other college learning environments and the cognitive and affective aspects of engagement were left largely unexplored. Additionally, large-scale assessments across institutions of engagement were limited without a widely-used measure that could assess "accountability and improvement" (Kuh, 2009, p. 7).

Taylor, Pace, Astin, Tinto, Chickering and Gamson, and others created a foundation of research for the development of one of the most prominent and current student engagement measures, the National Survey on Student Engagement (NSSE).

At the time NSSE was created in the late 1990s, interest in research on student engagement was increasing as institutions were feeling the pressures of increased accountability requirements from the government, higher education organizations, communities, and students. Internally, universities were looking for ways to improve students' learning and experiences in college and the ways in which they served students (Harper, Patton, & Wooden, 2009). The demographics of students, the technology used in higher education, federal guidelines on accountability, and increased competition brought about by changes to higher education also

affected institutions' assessment priorities (Lalancette, 2010). External to higher education, pressures such as Total Quality Management, value-added movements within education, decreased and competitive federal and state funding, and increased formal assessment in K-12 increased the importance of assessing student engagement and learning outcomes (Judd & Keith, 2012). These forces, in combination with many other changes, increased the importance of institutional assessment of student engagement and learning outcomes.

George D. Kuh and the Indiana University Center of Postsecondary Research team operate and manage the National Survey of Student Engagement (NSSE), which has been one of the most recent and prominent indicators of student engagement in the higher education literature (Ishitani & McKittrick, 2013; Kuh, 2001, 2008, 2009; Pike, Kuh, & McCormick, 2011). Used as a predictor of learning outcomes and academic success, student engagement in “educationally purposeful activities” (Kuh, 2001, p. 1), such as those defined by Chickering and Gamson (1987), is seen as a measure of the quality of a university’s educational offerings (Kuh, 2009). The NSSE views student engagement as a function of the student and the institution and quantifies “quality of effort and involvement in productive learning activities” (Kuh, 2009, p. 6) as the measures of engagement. The NSSE expanded the idea of student engagement to include cognitive measures, such as deep learning, in addition to the traditional behavioral measures, such as time and effort. The NSSE measures five areas: student behaviors, institutional actions and requirements, reactions to college, student background information, and student learning and development (Kuh, 2009, p. 11). For all of these areas, the measures are of students’ perceptions of these areas versus external data, such as faculty and staff perceptions of students’ engagement or institutionally-reported GPA. The NSSE has been used in a diverse array of studies because of its widespread institutional use (e.g. large N, diversity of respondents, etc.) and the relevance of

topics covered. Australian and community college versions of the NSSE have also been created to assess student engagement in these specific contexts.

The measurement of student engagement in studies that use NSSE data are meant to provide data for institutional improvement, to document good practice, and to “advocate for public acceptance and use of empirically derived conceptions of collegiate quality” (Kuh, 2009, p. 10). Although the NSSE has had a positive impact nationally and internationally, its use is specific and limited, particularly given its behavioral and cognitive lens (Solomonides, 2013). The NSSE is beneficial in providing a broad overview of student engagement in educationally purposeful activities, but is not feasible for use with co-curricular programs and may not be applicable for assessing engagement in all types of learning experiences (Kahu, 2013). Students’ affective perceptions of their engagement as well as the relational nature of engagement are missing from research using NSSE data.

Whereas Kuh (2009) provided a structure of the history of student engagement in a linear fashion with time periods as the focus of the evolution of student engagement, Kahu (2013) organized student engagement by four dominant research perspectives: behavioral, psychological, socio-cultural, and holistic (p. 758). The behavioral perspective, as previously discussed, has recently been dominated by the NSSE, which does not account for the “motivation, expectations, and emotions” of the student (Kahu, 2009, p. 760). The psychological perspective adds internal states to the behavioral perspective, with the addition of cognition, affect, and conation. The addition of thinking, feeling, and motivating oneself, respectively, provide a more comprehensive understanding of student engagement. However, the psychological perspective does not account for the environment or context within which students engage. The socio-cultural perspective places the context at the center of the researcher’s understanding of student engagement. Other

perspectives may see disengagement as a valid construct: students choose not to engage in their learning environments. The socio-cultural perspective frames this difference in engagement as a potential product of the environment, such as underrepresented minority students participating in lower numbers in student government or STEM majors because of unwelcoming environments. This often neglected perspective is important in the broader understanding of why students engage (Kahu, 2013).

The last perspective Kahu (2013) described was the holistic perspective. Student engagement, in this perspective, is a process and an outcome. It is a continuum of institutional, behavioral, and emotional processes and outcomes that are all analyzed in order to represent student engagement. It is the states of becoming and being engaged (Kahu, 2013). The central limitation of the holistic perspective is a lack of clarity on the antecedents and consequences of engagement. It makes it difficult to define what influences engagement and what happens as a result of engagement. Kahu (2013) recognized these limitations and argued for a model that combined all of the strengths of the differing perspectives and in the process of doing so created the next stage in the evolution of the theory and research on student engagement.

As described in this review of the history of student engagement, the type of engagement discussed, the definition of the quality of engagement, and the perspective of the researcher defining student engagement have varied over time (Kahu, 2013; Kuh, 2009; Luzecky, Schmidt, & Reynolds, 2012; Pike et al., 2011). In the twenty-first century, student engagement, as well as other research areas in higher education, have focused on more holistic measures that represent the changing purpose of higher education from an increase in knowledge, degree attainment, and career advancement to holistic student development: behaviorally, cognitively, and affectively. In more recent definitions, student engagement is distinguished from its context, influences, and

consequences in order to provide clarity on what student engagement entails versus its related constructs. Kahu (2013) created a conceptual framework for student engagement that incorporated all of these elements in order to create a clear, organized research framework for student engagement.

### **Kahu's (2013) conceptual framework of student engagement**

Student engagement is a complex construct with varying definitions in the literature. In Kahu's (2013) conceptual framework, student engagement is depicted at the center and is comprised of affect, cognition, and behavior (see Figure 2-1). The behavioral aspects of engagement, popular in the engagement literature and described in the previous section, consist of time and effort, interaction, and participation (Kahu, 2013). Student's affective engagement consists of enthusiasm, interest, and belonging towards a task, person, or community. Enthusiasm is often exemplified by excitement or passion, such as when a student describes that they enjoy the opportunity to meet peers with similar interests. Interest is often exemplified by a student realizing how what they are learning or experiencing relates to other areas of their life, such as coursework that can be applied to a job or world events. Belonging is often exemplified by descriptions of how the group with whom the student is engaging represents and becomes part of the student's identity. Joining a sorority, for example, can lead to a new identifier and a lifelong affinity. Each of these elements varies between students and can be understood as

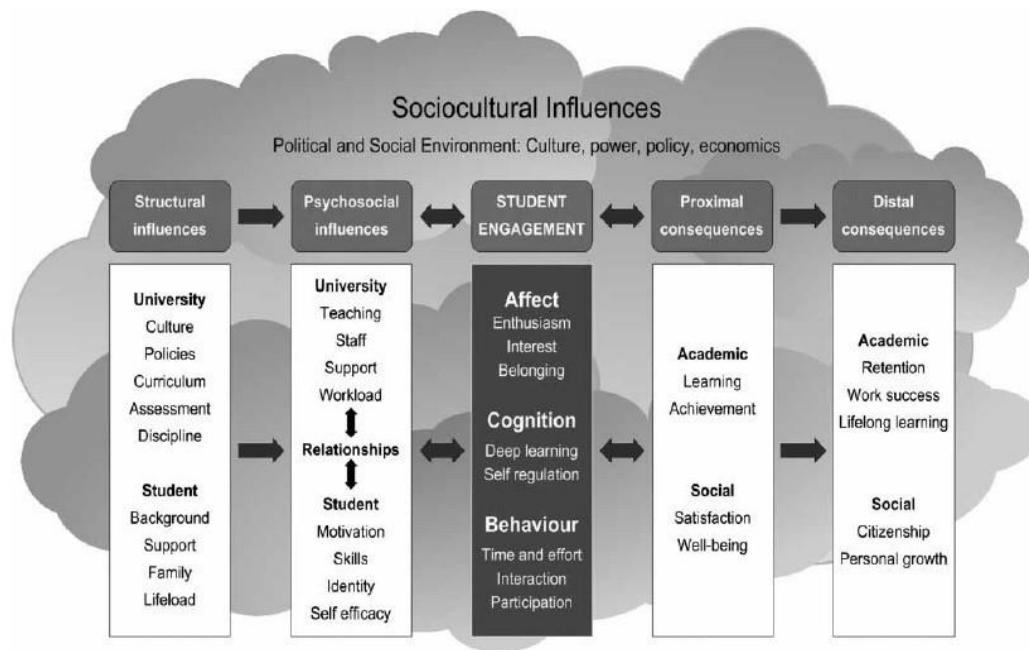


Figure 2-1. Kahu's (2013) "Conceptual Framework of Engagement, Antecedents and Consequences" (p. 766).

composing a continuum of student engagement, where a student may be more engaged as they deepen their affective connection from enthusiasm, to interest, and deeper to belonging.

Cognitive engagement is comprised of deep learning and self-regulation. Students who go beyond surface-level learning are said to be engaging in deep learning when they question, apply, and synthesize what they are learning. Laird, Shoup, and Kuh (2005) described this as "focus[ing] on the underlying meaning of the information" (p. 4). Other areas of research, such as Bloom's Taxonomy (Krathwohl, 2002) characterize deep learning as application, analysis, synthesis, and evaluation. Self-regulation is the act of "adapting...cognitive-motor skill to a dynamically changing environment" (Zimmerman & Kitsantas, 1997, p. 30). Students who have



high levels of self-regulation are able to take feedback from their environment, apply it to their behavior and particular situation, and adjust their behavior. Students who engage in deep learning and self-regulation have higher academic achievement (Zimmerman, 2000). Although much of the literature and Kahu's research focused on self-regulation in class-based learning, it is theorized in this study that deep learning and self-regulation are also important dimensions of cognitive student engagement in non-class-based learning, such as co-curricular programs.

From the center of the conceptual framework, Kahu (2013) depicted structural and psychosocial influences coming from the university and the student (e.g. university policies and student self-efficacy, respectively) and proximal and distal consequences consisting of academic and social elements (e.g. academic achievement and social well-being, respectively) all situated within the broader sociocultural influences. The purpose of situating the entire framework within sociocultural influences is to represent how "every element of the student and institutional experience" is affected by the social, political, and cultural context (Kahu, 2013, p. 768). For example, institutions are impacted by the economics of a city in many ways, including the recruitment and retention of professors and students. The difference in the composition of these groups affects the culture and policies of the institution. The power of legislators over the decisions of an institution, such as its commitment to academic freedom or freedom of speech on campus, will also affect the opportunities for student engagement and how students choose to engage.

As shown in Figure 2-1, the sociocultural influences form a cloud to encompass the elements of the conceptual framework. On the left of the figure are structural and psychosocial influences. Structural influences come from the university and the student. The university has structures such as culture and policies that influence how a student engages, what types of

engagement are valued by the campus community, and why some engagement opportunities may have more funding or political support than others. In this portion of the model, the student contributes their background, support, family, and lifeload (Kahu, 2013, p. 766). Kahu (2013) described how the student elements included in the model were not exhaustive (nor were any of the elements), but instead meant to be an overview of the types of student characteristics typically influential to student engagement.

The psychosocial influences from the university and student have a bi-directional relationship. The university influences are teaching, staff, support, and workload, which have a critical interplay with the student influences of motivation, skills, identity, and self-efficacy (Kahu, 2013). It is widely accepted that faculty-student interaction, here represented as the relationship or interplay between the university and student psychosocial influences, is predictive of many outcomes, including persistence and GPA (Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005). This list is not exhaustive, but contains the most prominent student psychosocial influences that affect the relationship between the university and the student.

Proximal and distal consequences are the short- and long-term results of student engagement (Kahu, 2013). As with the psychosocial influences that are positioned right before student engagement, proximal consequences are part of a continual evaluation of academic and social impacts from engagement that are influenced by psychosocial elements that lead to greater student engagement and vice versa. There can be academic proximal consequences, namely learning and achievement, and social proximal consequences, namely satisfaction and well-being (Kahu, 2013). For example, students who are highly engaged in a service organization focused on working with those with different abilities may experience deeper learning in courses that

discuss the Americans with Disabilities Act or the politics of funding social services because of a greater depth in understanding and personal connection to the issue.

The final element of Kahu's (2013) conceptual framework is distal consequences, categorized into academic (retention, work success, lifelong learning) and social (citizenship, personal growth) consequences. Similar to what Astin (1999) called outputs in his I-E-O model, distal consequences are the product of students engaging in their college environments. Academic distal consequences and their relationship to student engagement have been studied in-depth in many types of sociocultural contexts. Tinto's (1993) research on retention, for example, characterized student engagement as academic and social integration, which provided the foundation for research on students' interest and ability to persist.

Of particular interest to this study are the social consequences related to citizenship. Social consequences of student engagement are "students' ability to live successfully in the world and have a strong sense of self" (Kahu, 2013, p. 767). The NCLEAP defined the same construct as personal and social responsibility, which included "civic knowledge and engagement..., intercultural knowledge and competence, ethical reasoning and action, and foundations and skills for lifelong learning" (NLCLEAP, 2007, p. 3). This outcome is prominent in the learning outcomes literature and operationalized as the measurement of civic attitudes and behaviors, such as views on equity, diversity, voting, and community service.

Kahu (2013) described how the conceptual framework was too complex to examine in one research study. She called for more research to explore the relationships within the framework, particularly on the "role of emotion in student engagement" (Kahu, 2013, p. 769). As was chronicled earlier in the history of student engagement, attention to affect as an important dimension of student engagement has not been included in the primary discourse on student

engagement. The psychological and holistic student engagement perspectives that Kahu (2013) articulated had “a lack of definition and differentiation” in the affective dimension of the research, with some research emphasizing sense of belonging and others emphasizing enjoyment and interest as the primary dimensions of affective engagement (p. 762). Additionally, Kahu (2013) argued the need for more single institution studies, similar to her own research, given the importance of the sociocultural context to research on student engagement.

### **Research utilizing Kahu’s (2013) conceptual framework**

Kahu developed the student engagement conceptual framework as part of her graduate and dissertation research. Her research focus was the engagement of 19 distance education students in their first semester. Engagement data were collected via family interviews and video diaries. Students in the study demonstrated how the three elements of engagement – affect, cognition, and behavior – “interact[ed] and influenc[ed] each other” (Kahu, 2014, p. i). Engagement over the semester fluctuated as the students’ reactions to contextual factors increased and decreased. Kahu (2014) found that affective engagement was central to the understanding of students’ engagement in their study. Kahu’s conclusion of the importance of affective engagement further demonstrated the need for additional student engagement research that accounted for this important dimension of the construct.

Two follow-up studies were conducted (Kahu et al., Kahu, Stephens, Leach, & Zepke, 2015; 2014) that utilized data from Kahu’s dissertation research. In the original study, Kahu’s (2014) found little evidence of social engagement, which demonstrated the need for prioritizing the emotional aspects of engagement, such as belonging, in distance education course design.

The first follow-up study focused on “how [the mature-aged distance education students] learned to manage their space and time throughout their first semester at university” (Kahu et al., 2014, p. 523). Kahu et al. (2014) found that despite the benefits of technology, students faced three demands on their time and energy: study, self, and family. These demands made it challenging for students to engage beyond requirements of the course. In the second follow-up study, the focus was on emotions and how they can either promote or inhibit student engagement. Kahu et al. (2015) concluded that “student emotions are the point of intersection between the university factors such as course design and student variables such as motivation and background” (p. 481) and that there is a reciprocal relationship between emotions, engagement, and learning, which can combine to improve or decrease engagement. These studies affirmed the importance of affective engagement. Kahu’s dissertation and subsequent studies are valuable in providing a foundation for future research on student engagement. However, more research is needed using other data to broaden the impact and generalizability of the conceptual framework.

Several recent studies (Gunuc & Kuzu, 2014; Maroco, Maroco, Campos, & Fredricks, 2016; Montgomery, Hayward, Dunn, Carbonaro, & Amrhein, 2015; Nelson, 2016) have used Kahu’s (2013) conceptual framework as the defining framework of their research. Montgomery et al. (2015) utilized Kahu’s (2013) framework from just the psychological and sociocultural lenses for their qualitative study of student engagement in a MOOC blended learning environment. Nelson (2016) operationalized student engagement according to Kahu’s (2013) framework in a study of “how students’ actorship in studies and civic engagement changed over time” (p. 289). The focus of Nelson’s (2016) research was on the influences and consequences of a behavioral measurement of student engagement. The affective and cognitive dimensions of student engagement were left undefined in the study, which is the fundamental difference Kahu

(2013) argued for in utilizing her framework versus one of the traditional behavioral perspectives. Future research should measure all three domains of engagement, as this is the foundation of Kahu's (2013) conceptual framework.

Gunuc and Kuzu (2015) created a student engagement scale to measure class and campus engagement based on Kahu's (2013) framework. The 41 items reduced to six factors, including valuing, sense of belonging, cognitive engagement, peer relationships, relationships with faculty members, and behavioral engagement (p. 587). Items were closely related to the two environments under which they were organized, such as the item "I enjoy the activities carried out in [sic] campus" (sense of belonging factor) and "I try to do my best during classes" (cognitive engagement factor). The scale, which was developed for use in higher education institutions in Turkey, has relevance to higher education in other countries. However, the focus of the items restricts its use to studies focusing on student engagement in the broader campus and in courses. The use of the items was not appropriate for this study, given the focus on undergraduate students' engagement in co-curricular service organizations.

Similar to Gunuc and Kuzu's (2015) student engagement scale, Maroco et al. (2016) modified a student engagement scale originally created by Fredricks (2004) for elementary school students. The scale integrated Kahu's (2013) framework in addition to others and conceptualized student engagement into affective, cognitive, and behavioral dimensions. The 32 items situated engagement within courses and the school and were not easily modifiable for other learning environments, such as an item related to homework (*I check my homework to correct for errors*) and another item related to career development (*I usually talk to teachers about my professional interests/career*). Although these studies further operationalized Kahu's (2013) framework, there

is an opportunity to create a measure that operationalizes the student engagement portion of the conceptual framework and can be used beyond course and campus studies.

In addition to the studies discussed thus far, Kahu's (2013) framework is cited in several recent studies (Alicea, Suárez-Orozco, Singh, Darbes, & Abrica, 2016; Cummins, 2016; Fanghanel et al., 2016; Heng, 2014; Leach, 2014; Nelson et al., 2014; Senior & Howard, 2014; Zepke, 2014), which represents the impact the model has had on the discourse of student engagement in higher education. Cummins' (2016) dissertation literature review on student engagement is organized using Kahu's (2013) understanding of student engagement. Fanghanel et al.'s (2014) literature review in the area of the Scholarship of Teaching and Learning cited Kahu's (2013) study as a "new way of thinking" (p. 38) about student engagement in higher education. In the Nelson et al. (2014) article, the authors defined a framework for transforming student success and used Kahu's (2013) definition and conceptual framework of student engagement. Alicea et al. (2016), Clark (2014), Heng, (2013), Leach (2014), Senior and Howard (2014), Zepke (2014), and many others all cited Kahu (2013) in their respective literature reviews, demonstrating the importance of the conceptual framework to the current discourse on student engagement.

### **Summary**

Although the discourse on student engagement has changed, several key findings have remained consistent in the literature. Student engagement affects academic success (Astin, 1993; Nelson et al., 2014; Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005) and the achievement of learning outcomes (Kuh, 2009; Nelson et al., 2014). Furthermore, the type of co-curricular program within which

students engage and the depth of their engagement matters (Kuh, 2008). A student can be involved in something but not engaged (Harper & Quaye, 2009). Small nuances of participation can significantly change students' experiences, despite having several shared formal aspects of their learning environments (Astin, 1991). In order to measure engagement, researchers must go beyond a simple dichotomous participation variable to a measure that accounts for the affective, cognitive, and behavioral dimensions of the construct. In this study, co-curricular programming, specifically service organizations, are the context for student engagement with an interest in the relationship between the engagement and students' social justice attitudes.

### **Service Organizations**

Service, also known as community service,

is the engagement of students in activities that primarily focus on the service being provided as well as the benefits the service activities have on the recipients...The students receive some benefits by learning more about how their service makes a difference in the lives of the service recipients. (Furco, 1996, p. 4)

As defined in Chapter 1, service organizations are the co-curricular programs administered by the institution to promote student engagement and learning. They are funded and supported with resources from the institution, including an administrator who serves as an advisor. Examples of typical issues or topics that serve as the focus for undergraduate service organizations include mentoring children and youth; providing, transporting, or gathering food for people in poverty; and cleaning and restoring greenspaces. Although service organizations typically have new leadership and membership every few years as students transition in and out of college, the issues addressed and structures of the groups often stay the same over time.



There are many positive outcomes of service for students, which will be explored in this chapter. However, of prominent importance to this study is the relationship between engagement in service organizations and social justice attitudes. It is important to study and recognize the many benefits of service on students, but to draw special attention to the cultivation of such attitudes that will promote care and action for the common good. As Holdsworth and Quinn (2012) argued:

Positioning students as the beneficiaries of new skills and enhanced employability, rather than contributing to and learning from social justice principles, raises the question of how students' learning contributes to the communities with whom they volunteer...[V]olunteering could increase the social distance between privileged student[s] and disadvantaged local communities. (p. 389)

Without a critical lens to service, students may perpetuate stereotypes of those they serve and lack a systemic understanding of the specific issues that they are working to address. Therefore, it is important to measure social justice attitudes as an outcome of student engagement in service organizations.

### **Seminal studies in service participation**

In the late 1990s, Astin and Sax (1998) conducted a comprehensive national study of the effects of service participation on undergraduate students. The strongest predictors of participating in service were “volunteering during high school[,]. . . leadership ability, involvement in religious activities, commitment to participating in community action programs, tutoring other students during high school, being a guest in a teacher’s home, and being a women” (Astin & Sax, 1998, p. 253). The majority of service participation reported by students (70%) in the study was organized by institutional departments, such as in student activities and student affairs. This

suggested that service organizations were the context for the majority of service reported in the study. Service organizations, although not described or defined in detail in the Astin and Sax (1998) study, are important contexts to consider when studying student engagement because they are the primary sociocultural context in which the service is being organized. Service organizations define where the service will take place, who is being served, and what depth of the issues will be explored. The opportunities for engagement are defined and confined by these organizations, thus giving service organizations significant power over the exposure of students to social justice issues. Participation in service affects civic responsibility, with students “becom[ing] more strongly committed to helping others, serving their communities, promoting racial understanding, doing volunteer work, and working for nonprofit organizations” (Astin & Sax, 1998, p. 256). More research is needed to be able to explain if and to what extent the type of engagement matters to the achievement of these outcomes in relation to the context of students’ exposure and participation in service.

Since their seminal study, other studies have found similar results (Astin, Sax, & Avalos, 1999; Astin, Vogelgesang, Ikeda, & Yee, 2000; Cruce & Moore III, 2012; Marks & Jones, 2004; E. T. Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005; Perry, Osbaldiston, & Henning, 2014; Weber, Weber, Schneider, & Sleeper, 2007). Astin, Sax, and Avalos (1999), in a follow-up study to the Astin and Sax (1998) study previously discussed, added to the literature by researching the long-term effects of service participation on students. Service participation was considered a form of student involvement and was operationalized as time and effort. This definition of student involvement (or engagement) coincided with the behavioral definition of student engagement at the time of the study, which limited the results of the study. Students were asked the average number of hours they spent volunteering during the academic year with just over 60% indicating

they did not volunteer and approximately 5% reporting volunteering greater than or equal to six hours per week (Astin, Sax, & Avalos, 1999, p. 191). Students in the study who spent six or more hours volunteering per week were nearly twice as likely to engage in volunteer work after college than those who did not volunteer in college. “The ‘habit’ of volunteering persists over a relatively long period of time” with hours spent volunteering during high school positively correlated to volunteering after college, after controlling for volunteering in college (Astin, et al., 1999, p. 196). The researchers also concluded that volunteering after college was positively associated with many highly desired learning outcomes, including empowerment to bring about change, graduate school attendance, socialization with diverse groups, and racial understanding. Arguably one of the most important findings of the study was that “few of the long-term effects of volunteerism during college can be explained by volunteerism after college” (Astin, et al., 1999, p. 199). This demonstrated the need to get students involved in service early and often starting in high school and continuing through college in order to promote long-term civic engagement attitudes and behaviors.

Astin conducted another study on the effects of service and service learning to compare the outcomes of each on values and beliefs, academic skills, leadership, and future plans (Astin et al., 2000). The longitudinal national study used CIRP data from 1994 and 1998 with over 20,000 participants. Service and service learning both had positive impacts on all outcome measures, with service learning having a stronger effect on all outcomes except for interpersonal skills, self efficacy, and leadership. The values and beliefs measures in the study were chosen because of their importance to improving and promoting American democracy. Astin et al. (2000) found that “‘commitment to promoting racial understanding’ and ‘commitment to activism’ [were] significantly affected by participation in course-based service over and above the effect of generic

community service” (p. 15). Although not directly assessing social justice attitudes, the items asked about highly related constructs, such as commitment to the goal of promoting racial understanding, influencing social values, and helping others who are in difficulty.

Marks and Jones (2004) in their study on the relationship between high school volunteering and college volunteering found that high school volunteering did not predict college volunteering. This is in contrast to Astin et al.’s (1999) study that discussed the positive benefits of forming volunteer habits early in high school and continuing them into college. The nationally representative sample used by Marks and Jones (2004) consisted of 6,491 seniors in college. The differences in continued volunteer work from the transition of high school to college was more likely for students who participated in voluntary volunteer work. If students were required to participate in service during high school they were less likely to continue participating in service once it became a choice, versus students who chose to participate in service in high school. Extrinsic motivators, such as college admissions recommendations of service activity or required hours for graduation may not have the intended effect of cultivating long-term civic engagement.

Marks and Jones (2004) described a key limitation of their study: a lack of in-depth data on the nature of students’ engagement in service. They hypothesized that “differences in the quantity and quality of volunteering” matter towards the outcomes of service on students (Marks & Jones, 2004, p. 334). Service that is transformative to students, implying a significant change in students, “would need to be powerful, profoundly human, ongoing, and intellectually and emotionally compelling” (Marks & Jones, 2004, p. 335). Or in Kahu’s (2013) terminology, students who affectively, cognitively, and behaviorally engage in service will have greater changes in their academic and social outcomes. As with the other studies described thus far, the authors realized the limitation of their understanding of the impact of service on students because

of the use of behavioral measures of student engagement. In order to learn more about the nature of student engagement, research is needed that explores the depth of this important construct.

A more recent study affirmed the need for measuring the extent and nature of student engagement in service. Perry, Osbaldiston, and Henning's (2014) research on the validity and reliability of the Community Service Attitudes Scale (CSAS) hypothesized a difference in attitudes according to the group membership of students. Using the known groups method of validation, they compared the CSAS scores of service immersion, Greek fraternities and sororities, and uninvolved students with the hypothesis that the groups would decrease in their scores on the CSAS, respectively. Results from the one-way ANOVA supported the hypothesis. Students from the immersion group scored higher on nine of the 10 subscales than did the Greek students and Greek students scored higher on nine of the 10 subscales than the uninvolved students. The goal of the researchers was not to assess the engagement of students in these groups. However, it is problematic that each group's members are seen as homogenous participants and equal recipients of the benefits of service. Perry et al. (2014) argued for the "need for a measure that allow[ed] programs to be evaluated empirically such that results [could] be compared across programs" and that "systematic comparisons would facilitate the development of a science of promoting community service" (p. 730). Their research adds to the science of promoting community service while also ignoring the science of student engagement. Future research should consider the predictors, outcomes, and depth of engagement within service organizations.

In Weber et al.'s (2007) research on undergraduate service, they explored the relationship between self-efficacy and service. Self-efficacy was measured using the five-item Self-efficacy Toward Service (SETS) scale. The SETS scale was used as a dependent variable to test

predictors of self-efficacy and then used as an independent variable to predict civic behaviors (i.e. hours volunteered, money donated to charity, and years of membership in a service organization). Factors that predicted self-efficacy included nationality and the civic involvement of friends and peers. The finding of nationality was suspect, given the lack of evidence that the SETS scale was valid for all nationalities. Civic involvement of friends and peers predicting self-efficacy was of particular interest to this study. The more students are in situations with positive peer pressure or with models of service, the higher their confidence in their ability to serve. Self-efficacy was a significant predictor of civic behaviors, which suggested that students who have higher self-confidence in their ability to serve and potentially higher self-confidence in the impact of their service are more likely to volunteer. This study reiterated the importance of social groups and service organizations to service. Service organizations are an important context to consider when studying undergraduate service.

## **Summary**

The impact of service participation on learning outcomes may be well-established, however the depth and impact of that engagement warrant further study (Holdsworth & Quinn, 2012; Marks & Jones, 2004). Participation in service is often measured in terms of time spent in service (Astin & Sax, 1998; Astin et al., 1999; Vogelgesang & Astin, 2000) or dichotomous measures of *participated* or *did not participate* (Marks & Jones, 2004) and does not account for the depth of student engagement. Student engagement is not a dichotomous construct. Astin and Sax (1998) concluded that “generally, the more time devoted to service, the stronger the positive

effect” (p. 262). However, students can spend time participating (behaviorally) but not feel (affectively) or think (cognitively) deeply about what they are doing and why.

Marks and Jones (2004) described the importance of the motivations and context of service. In their summary of other service studies, Marks and Jones (2004) concluded that “for the majority of students...involvement in community service may be episodic and contextually driven” without deep motivations (p. 307). Einfeld and Collins (2009) made similar conclusions from their research on the relationship between service-learning and social justice attitudes. Their qualitative study sampled university-sponsored Americorps members and measured their “understanding and commitment to social justice, multicultural competence, and civic engagement” (Einfeld & Collins, 2009, p. 95). Participants did not necessarily have greater aspirations for social change after serving the university community.

The overall lack of commitment to pursue systemic social change by the participants in this study is evidence that being exposed to situations of inequality and serving underprivileged populations does not automatically foster a commitment to social justice. (Einfeld & Collins, 2009, p. 106)

Although the participants in their study were not undergraduate students, Americorps members are typically close in age to traditionally-aged undergraduate students, with many of them being recent graduates. Einfeld and Collins’ (2009) research supported the need to study engagement beyond behavioral measures. If time on task is not a reliable predictor of an increase in social justice attitudes, affective and cognitive engagement may be better predictors.

Service organizations provide students an opportunity to be exposed to different social justice topics outside the classroom, but their engagement with those organizations differs. As Yorio and Ye (2012) described, “relationships [made through service work] can lead to an understanding of social justice” (p. 11). Engagement in service can also lead to the perpetuation

of stereotypes about those being served as well as a lack of depth of the issues being addressed (Holdsworth & Quinn, 2012; Marks & Jones, 2004). Students engage in these organizations at different levels and it is hypothesized that the level of that engagement matters towards the achievement of social justice attitudes. A holistic measure of student engagement is needed to better understand if the depth of student engagement in all three dimensions – affective, cognitive, and behavioral – matters in relationship to the achievement of learning outcomes, specifically social justice attitudes.

### **Social Justice Attitudes**

Social justice attitudes are the “value[s] or belief[s], [that encompass] the idea that people should have equitable access to resources and protection of human rights” (Torres-Harding et al., 2012, p. 78). Moely et al. (2002) operationalized social justice attitudes as those “concerning causes of poverty and misfortune and how social problems can be solved” (p. 18). Social justice attitudes in this study are operationalized and studied as consequences of student engagement. Kahu (2013) used the terms proximal and distal consequences to describe the outcomes of student engagement. However, most literature uses the term learning outcomes to describe the outcomes of undergraduate student engagement.

The National Leadership Council for Liberal Education and America's Promise (NLCLEAP) (2007) has promoted 21st century skills students will need to be competitive in the global marketplace. The NLCLEAP (2007) established four learning outcomes that connected to these skills, which included “knowledge of human cultures and the physical world, intellectual and practical skills, personal and social responsibility, and integrative learning” (p. 3). Of the



four learning outcomes specified in the NLCLEAP (2007), social justice fits within the *Personal and Social Responsibility* outcome (p. 3). Personal and social responsibility encompasses “civic knowledge and engagement..., intercultural knowledge and competence, ethical reasoning and action, and foundations and skills for lifelong learning” (NLCLEAP, 2007, p. 3). Researchers have measured civic knowledge and engagement by operationalizing its dimensions as civic learning (Steinberg, Hatcher, & Bringle, 2011), civic engagement (Moely et al., 2002; Morais & Ogden, 2011), civic attitudes (Doolittle & Faul, 2013; Moely et al., 2002; Steinberg et al., 2011), political action/activism (Corning & Myers, 2002), and social justice attitudes (Moely et al., 2002).

Although the NLCLEAP’s (2007) 21<sup>st</sup> century skills categorized learning outcomes into a clear framework, previous research used different phrasing to classify similar learning outcomes. In Stukas et al.’s (1999) classifications, social justice attitudes were categorized into the *Understanding of Self and World* outcome, which included “personal growth, development of moral reasoning, empathic understanding, and attitudes toward diverse groups in society” (p. 15). Although the NLCLEAP’s (2007) and Stukas, Snyder, and Clary’s (1999) phrasing was not identical, the meanings are very similar. Reason and Hemer (2014) described the different definitions of the construct as a challenge to the study of civic learning outcomes. Regardless of the exact definition of civic learning outcomes, the foundation is clear: undergraduate students should graduate from college with a sense of responsibility and understanding of themselves in relation to the world and be prepared for action as citizens of their communities and of their world.

Social justice attitudes are an important outcome of many types of higher education institutions, including Jesuit higher education (Boryczka & Petrino, 2012). As Boryczka and

Petrino (2012) articulated, Jesuit education is distinct from purely Catholic education in its emphasis on cultivating “leaders in service” (p. 5). Within Jesuit higher education, there is marked emphasis on social justice with an “emphasis [on] ‘the common good’ with particular attention to serving the poor and less fortunate” (Guest, Lies, Kerssen-Griep, & Frieberg, 2009, p. 2). For this study, the focus is on one civic learning outcome: social justice attitudes. The Social Justice scale to be discussed later in this chapter was created by Moely et al. (2002) who used Stukas et al.’s (1999) classifications of the learning outcomes of service-learning to define social justice attitudes in their study.

### **Predictors of social justice attitudes**

Research conducted on undergraduate students found that gender (Moely et al., 2002; Reason & Hemer, 2014), major (Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005; Reason & Hemer, 2014), political ideology (Guest et al., 2009), participation in service (Astin et al., 1999; Eyler, Giles Jr., & Braxton, 1997; Moely & Ilustre, 2011; Moely et al., 2002; E. T. Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005; Reason & Hemer, 2014; Warren, 2012), faculty-student interaction (Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005), and participation in a fraternity and sorority (Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005; Reason & Hemer, 2014) all have an impact on civic engagement behaviors and social justice attitudes.

Women score higher than men on most civic learning, skills, behaviors, and values assessment measures, although there is some disagreement with this finding (Reason & Hemer, 2014). In Moely et al.’s (2002) study to analyze the psychometric properties of the CASQ, “women consistently scored higher than men” (p. 22) on the Civic Action, Social Justice Attitudes, and Diversity Attitudes scales. In another study on social justice attitudes, Eyler and

Giles (1999) found similar results with women scoring higher than men. Reason and Hemer (2014) disagreed with these findings, with an assertion that “the effect of gender in civic learning [was] not settled” (p. 30). Reason and Hemer (2014) conducted a review of the literature and found two studies where women did not score higher than men: Lott’s (2013) study measuring civic values and Biddix’s (2010) study measuring technology for civic purposes. Of the studies in their review that did not find women’s scores higher on civic skills and values inventories, the measures were civic values (Lott, 2013) and the use of technology for civic purposes (Biddix, 2010). The civic values in Lott’s (2013) study came from CIRP’s 2004 civic learning items, which were broader than the social justice attitudes in this study. Biddix’s (2010) study on the use of technology used data from 2002 to 2008 and also had a broader outcome of interest than the present study. Because these two studies did not measure social justice attitudes solely as the outcome or dependent variable and given the other research studies previously discussed, it was hypothesized that for this population, women would score higher than men on the social justice attitudes measure.

College major has been shown to have an effect on civic responsibility (Kuh & Umbach, 2004), civic values (Lott, 2013), and civic engagement (Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005), with students majoring in social science and humanities consistently scoring higher than students in other majors. As Kuh and Umbach (2004) stated, “Students in the social sciences report the highest gains in general character development, civic responsibility, and general knowledge” (pp. 47-48). Additionally, the institution used in this study required students in the College of Arts and Sciences to take a course that discussed social justice topics, whereas other colleges at the institution do not. It was expected that students in the present study from the social sciences and

humanities majors would score, on average, higher on the Social Justice scale than their peers in other majors.

Undergraduate students with different political ideologies (e.g. conservative versus liberal) also show differences in their definitions of social justice (Guest et al., 2009). Although all undergraduate students in Guest et al.'s (2009) study defined social justice in terms of "equal rights, basic needs, education, and community service," more liberal students emphasized environmental issues and more conservative students emphasized "charity and just policy" (Guest et al., 2009, p. 1). Participation in service, as previously discussed, also has an impact on social justice attitudes. Faculty-student interaction has a positive impact on many learning outcomes and academic success. The more students interact with faculty outside of class, the more likely students are to persist, have higher GPAs, and increase their civic learning outcomes, including social justice attitudes (Pascarella and Terenzini, 2005). Kuh and Umbach (2004) found that sorority and fraternity students rated themselves higher on civic responsibility than other student groups. Other research, however, has found that those in fraternities and sororities score lower on measures of openness to diversity and challenge (Pascarella et al., 1996), indicating service participation may be beneficial to how students perceive themselves as active citizens while at the same time detrimental to students' exposure to diversity.

Of these predictors of civic engagement and social justice attitudes, gender and major were used in the present study as predictors. These two predictors were chosen because of previous research supporting their effect on social justice attitudes and their hypothesized effect on the students at the Jesuit institution used in this study. Participation in service was included in the study and was measured by the student engagement items. Engagement was measured as it related to service organizations.

### **Measurement of social justice attitudes**

Until recently, measurement of social justice and civic engagement in post-secondary education has mainly involved self-report measures (Reason & Hemer, 2014). The American Association of Colleges and Universities (2010) published the VALUE rubrics after several meetings of experts in the areas of undergraduate learning outcomes, including civic engagement. The civic engagement rubric is organized into six areas, including diversity of community and cultures, analysis of knowledge, civic identity and commitment, civic communication, civic action and reflection, and civic contexts/structures (p. 2). While the rubric is extensive, it is most appropriate for assessing students who have completed a capstone project or portfolio and less appropriate for assessing participation in a single program or intervention.

Kuh (2001) advocated for the use of self-report measures in studies where it is not feasible to study time spent in activities in any other reasonable way. If substantial validity evidence can be provided to support self-reported data, it can be used as a research method (Kuh, 2001; Pike et al., 2011). In this study, the self-reported engagement measure was validated by correlations between the behavioral student engagement measures and the Civic Engagement Scale (Doolittle & Faul, 2013) and by correlations between the dimensions as evidence of convergent validity and evidence based on internal structures, respectively. Although these validity measures do not entirely remove the threat of students' misperceptions of their engagement, the validity evidence helps assess if scores were correlated and consistent within the sample (i.e. if scores are correlated and inflated, they would all be inflated and comparable within the study).

Other instruments developed to measure social justice and/or civic learning outcomes that use self-report measures include the Activism Orientation Scale (AOS) (Corning & Myers, 2002), the Service Learning Benefit scale (SELEB) (Toncar, Reid, Burns, Anderson, & Nguyen, 2006), the Global Citizenship Scale (GSC) (Morais & Ogden, 2011), the Civic-Minded Graduate Survey (Steinberg et al., 2011), the Civic Engagement Scale (CES) (Doolittle & Faul, 2013), and the Civic Attitudes and Skills Questionnaire (CASQ) (Moely et al., 2002). Table 2-1 provides an overview of each of the scales.

Table 2-1. Instruments Measuring Civic Values and Social Justice Attitudes.

Scale	Author(s), Year	Description	Method
Activism Orientation Scale (AOS)	(Corning & Myers, 2002)	"assess[es] individuals' propensities to engage in social action" (p. 703); focuses more on civic action than social justice attitudes	Quantitative: High-Risk and Conventional (35 items, item breakdown by subscale not given)
Civic Attitudes and Skills Questionnaire (CASQ)	(Moely et al., 2002)	"measure[s] attitudes, skills, and behavioral intentions that might be affected by service-learning participation" (p. 15)	Quantitative: Civic Action (8 items); Interpersonal and Problem-Solving Skills (12 items); Political Awareness (6 items); Leadership Skills (5 items); Social Justice Attitudes <sup>a</sup> (8 items); and Diversity Attitudes (5 items)
Civic Engagement Scale (CES)	(Doolittle & Faul, 2013)	"measure[s] the attitudes and behaviors that may have been affected by a service-learning experience" (p. 1)	Quantitative: Attitudes (8 items) and Behaviors <sup>b</sup> (6 items)

Civic-Minded Graduate Survey (CMG)	(Steinberg et al., 2011)	measures knowledge, skills, dispositions, and behaviors related to civic learning outcomes	Mixed methods: CMG Scale; CMG Narrative Prompt and Rubric; and the CMG Interview Protocol and Rubric
Global Citizenship Scale (GCS)	(Morais & Ogden, 2011)	measures "social responsibility, global competence, and global civic engagement" (p. 445)	Quantitative: Social Responsibility (13 items); Global Competence (13 items); and Global Civic Engagement (17 items)
Service Learning Benefit scale (SELEB)	(Toncar et al., 2006)	"measures student perceptions of service learning experiences...[via] ...four underlying dimensions - practical skills, interpersonal skills, citizenship, and personal responsibility" (p. 223)	Quantitative: Practical Skills; Interpersonal Skills; Citizenship; and Personal Responsibility (12 items, item breakdown by subscale not given)

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*Note.* <sup>a</sup>The Social Justice Attitudes scale of the CASQ was used in the present study.

<sup>b</sup>The Behaviors scale of the CES was used in the present study.

The scales each measure a slightly different dimension of civic learning outcomes. The Activism Orientation Scale focuses on political and social activism with items asking respondents to rate the likelihood of engaging in activities like trying to convince a friend to change their political opinion or protesting a cause (Corning & Myers, 2002). The Service Learning Benefit Scale measures many aspects of civic learning that students gained from their educational experience, such as empathy and sensitivity to the plight of others and community involvement (Toncar et al., 2006). The Global Citizenship Scale measures social responsibility, global

competence, and global civic engagement via a Likert-type scale with items such as “No one country or group of people should dominate and exploit others in the world.” and “I am informed of current issues that impact international relations.” (Morais & Ogden, 2011, p. 449). The Civic-Minded Graduate Scale (Steinberg et al., 2011) is the only scale of the group that has additional measurements for a mixed-methods approach. The scale is used with a narrative prompt and interview protocol, along with a rubric for scoring each measure (Steinberg et al., 2011). The scale items are organized by knowledge, skills, disposition, and behavioral intentions. Voting, listening, and appreciating diversity are just some of the topics of interest in the Civic-Minded Graduate Scale (Steinberg et al., 2011). All of these scales have additional research regarding their psychometric properties and could be used for research on the broad civic learning outcomes of undergraduate student engagement in service organizations. This study focused on one civic learning outcome: social justice attitudes. The scales just described, although good for measuring broader constructs, did not have items specific enough to social justice attitudes to be of use to this study.

### **Civic Attitudes and Skills Questionnaire (CASQ) and the Civic Engagement Scale (CES)**

Two scales, the Civic Engagement Scale (CES) and the Civic Attitudes and Skills Questionnaire (CASQ), were pertinent to this study. The behavior scale of the CES and the social justice attitudes scale of the CASQ were chosen because their items and the constructs measured are most closely aligned with the constructs in this study. The CES is a much newer scale (Doolittle & Faul, 2013), thus there is less research citing the study or the use of the scale. In



their validation study of undergraduate students in social work and education majors, Doolittle and Faul (2013) found that a two-dimensional scale (i.e. attitudes and behaviors) was supported with mean factor loadings of .79 and .77, respectively. The internal consistency as measured via Cronbach's alpha was .91 for the attitude scale and .85 for the behavior scale. The CES has scales that measure "the attitudes and behaviors that have been affected" by service participation (Doolittle & Faul, 2013, p. 1). The attitudes scale measures "the personal beliefs and feelings that individuals have about their involvement in their community and their perceived ability to make a difference" (Doolittle & Faul, 2013, p. 6). The behaviors scale measures "the actions one takes to actively attempt to engage and make a difference in his or her community" (Doolittle & Faul, 2013, p. 6). The behavior scale has Likert response items that help to understand the depth of students' behavioral engagement: "I participate in discussions that raise issues of social responsibility." and "I help members of my community." Although their initial study showed promising reliability and validity, Doolittle and Faul (2013) called for more research using the CES with more diverse student samples. Akin, Usta, and Akin (2014) translated the CES into Turkish and conducted a validation study of its use with 275 undergraduate Turkish students. The Turkish CES had good internal consistency measures for the attitude and behavior scale,  $\alpha = .83$  and  $\alpha = .85$ , respectively. Construct validity was established by conducting a confirmatory factor analysis on the two dimensions, which resulted in a good fit ( $\chi^2 = 167.35$ ,  $df = 71$ , RMSEA = .072, GFI = .92, CFI = .93, IFI = .93, and SRMR = .06) (Akin et al., 2014, p. 56). As authors in both studies stated, the CES has potential to be a valuable measure of civic engagement for undergraduate students after additional research is conducted on its use with different and more diverse samples (Akin et al., 2014; Doolittle & Faul, 2013).

The Civic Attitudes and Skills Questionnaire (Moely et al., 2002) contains a social justice attitudes scale, which was the most appropriate measure for this study. Although the CASQ has been used in several studies of undergraduate students (Buch & Harden, 2011; Levesque-Bristol, Knapp, & Fisher, 2010; Moely & Ilustre, 2011, 2013; Moely et al., 2002; Schamber & Mahoney, 2008; Simons & Cleary, 2005), two studies were found that use the Social Justice scale. Schamber and Mahoney (2008) used the Social Justice scale of the CASQ as a pretest/posttest to study changes in students' social justice attitudes before and after participation in a first-year seminar. They found statistically significant increases in social justice attitudes before and after the seminar and no statistically significant differences in social justice attitudes for students who did not participate in the first-year seminar. Simons and Cleary (2005) also used the Social Justice scale as a pretest/posttest with an added mid-point assessment to measure a change in students' attitudes who had participated in service-learning. Analysis of a repeated-measure ANOVA showed statistically significant differences in social justice attitudes for participants. Although both of these studies found statistically significant results, neither reported reliability statistics for scores, which would have helped in understanding how the items and scales operated for the samples in the two studies. Despite the limited information on the CASQ's validity and reliability for different student samples, Celio, Durlak, and Dymnicki (2011) suggested the use of the CASQ after they conducted an extensive literature review of 62 studies based on previous reports of the scores on the instrument being valid and reliable. More studies are needed that use the CASQ and report on the validity and reliability of the scales for different samples (Moely & Ilustre, 2013).

The CES and CASQ measure the constructs of interest to this study: civic engagement behaviors and social justice attitudes. Additionally, the scales were chosen based upon the

following criteria: free access, face validity, published validation studies, and the use of the scales by researchers other than the original authors that led to valid and reliable scores. The next chapter, Methods, provides further information on access, validity, and reliability the scales.

## **Chapter 3**

### **Methods**

The purpose of this study was to describe the relationship between the extent and nature of engagement in a service organization and undergraduate students' social justice attitudes. The undergraduate students in this study participated in co-curricular, service organizations that focused on a variety of social justice and civic concerns. Based on Kahu's (2013) conceptual framework of student engagement, a mixed-methods study with a quantitative emphasis (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004) was conducted in order to best address the research questions.

### **Context**

#### **Jesuit higher education and service organization contexts**

Jesuit higher education refers to the 28 institutions of formal higher education in the United States that are run by the Society of Jesus, or the Jesuits. The Jesuits are members of the Order of the Society of Jesus, which was founded in 1540 by Saint Ignatius of Loyola (Traub, 2010). As Boryczka and Petrino (2012) articulated, Jesuit education is distinct from purely Catholic education in its emphasis on cultivating "leaders in service" (p. 5). Within Jesuit higher education, there is marked emphasis on social justice because of St. Ignatius' orientation towards helping those at the margins. There are three major aspects of the Jesuit vision (Traub, 2010) that align with these learning outcomes. Jesuit education seeks to transform people to:

1. [have] critical awareness of personal and social evil, [with a view that] God's love [is] more powerful than any evil;

2. [promote] freedom, need for discernment, and responsible action;
3. [be] leaders in service, ‘men and women for others,’ ‘whole persons of solidarity,’ building a more just and humane world (Traub, 2010, p. 5)

The institution chosen for this study (referred to as the *Institution*) is an “exemplary learning community that educates students for lives of leadership and service for the common good” (Institution, 2017). Social justice is an important tenet of this leadership and service. The alignment between the Institution’s focus on service and social justice was one of the reasons the institution, a Jesuit university, was chosen as the institution from which to sample. At the Institution, social justice is embedded throughout the learning environment, from the outcomes of co-curricular programs to the learning objectives of many courses. The Institution states on its website that

University education must include not only formal classroom instruction but also experiences which teach the student how to live a life of leadership, social justice, academic excellence, and intellectual pursuits, providing thereby a conduit of the values and doctrines of the Catholic Church into the communities where they live and work” (Institution, 2017).

Staff, faculty, and administrators at the Institution are tasked with teaching students about social justice as an aspect of holistic student development.

Within the community service office, the focus on social justice is foundational to the work of the students and staff members. The community service office was a desirable co-curricular department for the study of undergraduate students given its application of the social justice mission. The office runs service and service-learning programs intended to promote Jesuit values, such as leadership and social justice, and to develop students. Service-learning, also called academic service-learning, refers to course-based service experiences with reflection taking a prominent role (Eyler et al., 1997). Bringle and Hatcher (1996) defined service learning as

a credit-bearing educational experience in which students participate in an organized service activity that meets identified community needs and reflect on the service activity in such a way as to gain further understanding of course content a broader appreciation of the discipline, and an enhanced sense of civic responsibility (p. 222).

The present study sampled students who participated in service organizations. Some of the students in the sample may have also completed service-learning work as part of a course, but they were asked to use their service organization experiences to reflect on their engagement.

#### **Site description: Small, Master's I University in the Pacific Northwest**

This study was conducted at a private, liberal arts university that is classified as a Master's I University (Office of Institutional Research, 2014). Founded by Jesuit-Catholic priests in 1887, the Institution enrolled 4,837 undergraduate students in the fall of 2014. The Institution is a predominantly-white institution, with 73% of undergraduate students classified as white, non-Hispanic. There are slightly more women than men, with 54% women and 46% men. A slight majority of students share their faith with the Institution with 51.6% Roman Catholic and an additional 21.9% of students identifying with other Christian faiths. The six-year graduation rates for students of color, those with unreported race/ethnicity, non-resident alien, and Caucasian students are all above 79% at 80.1%, 79.6%, 83.3%, 83.6%, respectively. Akin to its Jesuit-Catholic affiliation, the institution is ranked number one among small colleges and universities to send Peace Corps volunteers overseas, with 22 graduates of the Institution currently serving abroad (Office of Institutional Research, 2014).

## **Participant characteristics**

Of the approximately 4,800 undergraduate students, approximately 1,300 students participated in co-curricular service programs in the 2015-2016 academic year. This section contains descriptions of the accessible population and the sample.

### **Accessible population**

A demographic overview of the participants in the community service office's programs was provided that included 988 student participants in the following programs: mentoring, [the Institution] Special Recreation, Reality Camp, Campus Kitchens. The data did not include the service immersion or one-day service groups, but staff reported the data were an accurate approximation of the population of students who participated in the community service office's programs in the 2014-2015 and 2015-2016 academic years. Of the 988 participants, 33% were male ( $n = 322$ ) and 67% ( $n = 666$ ) were female. The number of white students ( $n = 744$ ) greatly exceeded the number of students of color ( $n = 215$ ) with 75% of the participants classified as white and 22.3% of the participants classified as students of color. The remaining 2.7% were categorized as non-resident aliens or did not report their race/ethnicity. The schools of Arts and Sciences (51.99%) and Business (20.02%) had the largest representation of students who participated in the community service office's programs, followed by Nursing and Human Physiology (12.67%), Engineering and Applied Science (9.70%), and Education (5.62%).

### Sample demographic characteristics

There were 129 students who responded to the questionnaire out of approximately 1,300 students who participated in service in 2015-2016. Of the 129 respondents, 102 indicated a service organization in which they participated that they used to answer the items regarding their engagement in that organization (see Table A1 in Appendix A for list and descriptions of organizations). The service organization with the most respondents was SMILE ( $n = 24$ ) followed by [Institution] Volunteer Corps ( $n = 11$ ) and [Institution] Special Recreation ( $n = 10$ ). Of the 129 respondents, 23 reported being in a leadership position and 79 reported being a general member of the service organizations.

Participants were predominantly women ( $n = 104$ ), with only 25 of the 129 respondents indicating they were men (19.4%). The sample in this study was heavily weighted towards women, with 15 more women and 15 fewer men than was expected given the gender breakdown of the students who participated in service at the Institution in the 2014-2015 and 2015-2016 academic years,  $\chi^2(1, N = 1117) = 9.30, p = .001$  with a power of 1.00. Participants were also predominantly white ( $n = 108$ ), with only nine people of color indicating their race/ethnicity (responses were missing for 30 respondents). Compared to demographics of all service participants, white students were overrepresented and students of color were underrepresented,  $\chi^2(1, N = 1076) = 13.72, p = .000$  with a power of 1.00. There were approximately 15 more white respondents than expected and 15 fewer people of color. Given this discrepancy, this study is limited in the population to which it can be generalized (Gall, Gall, & Borg, 2007). This limitation and others are discussed in more depth in Chapter 5.



Of the 129 respondents who responded with their religious/spiritual affiliation, 58 identified as Roman Catholic, with the next closest religion being Nondenominational Christian ( $n = 17$ ). Participation in the study was highest for first-year students ( $n = 45$ ) and gradually decreased as students got further along in their undergraduate studies, with students in their fourth year having the lowest participation ( $n = 18$ ). Aligned with this finding, 73 respondents reported living in a residence hall on campus, as first- and second-year students are required to live on campus (Institution, 2017). Participants came from all colleges, with the most students from the College of Arts and Sciences ( $n = 69$ ). The remaining colleges had similar representation ranging from 11 to 19 participants. The most highly represented majors reported included Nursing ( $n = 11$ ) and Biology ( $n = 11$ ). The average GPA of respondents ( $n = 127$ ) was 3.53, with a median of 3.60 and a range of 2.08 ( $n = 1$ ) to 4.00 ( $n = 4$ ). Table A2 in Appendix A provides an overview of the sample demographics.

### **Sampling Procedures**

Staff at the community service office at the Institution were contacted to discuss student organizations that focused on philanthropy and service that have social justice learning outcomes for undergraduate student participants. This conversation yielded a list of service organizations that have varying missions and administrative oversight (See Table A1 in Appendix A). Each organization was classified using designations given by the community service office staff or according to its mission/purpose, which led to four general types of services organizations: mentoring, philanthropy, service immersion, and student engagement. The six mentoring programs run by the community service office have high administrative oversight and are located

“in 12...public [K-12] schools, with approximately 350...students serving over 700 youth” (Institution, 2015). The philanthropic organizations do significant fundraising in addition to direct service work, such as Circle K, which does a combination of direct service and fundraising with the local chapter of Kiwanis International. Service immersion organizations, such as Mission: Possible, immerse students for several days within a community. Students engage in direct service while also learning about broader community issues and the local culture. The student engagement organizations offer general service opportunities to students that do not include mentoring as a sole purpose, such as The Campus Kitchen, which donates food waste from the school cafeteria to the local community.

The target population for the dissertation study was undergraduate students at the institution who participated in service organizations. The accessible population for this study was undergraduate students at the Institution who engaged in mentoring, philanthropy, service immersion, and student engagement service organizations. All students in the chosen service organizations were specifically approached to complete the questionnaire, in addition to all students who expressed interest at some point in time during their college experience in participating in a service organization and were included on the general listserv. Participants were excluded if they did not indicate a service organization with which they were affiliated that they used to answer the engagement and social justice items. Participants were also excluded if they were not an undergraduate student ( $n = 3$ ).

Convenience sampling was used to choose the institution and participants to study. Although true random sampling provides the best sampling procedure to reduce error and to be able to generalize results (Gall et al., 2007), concerns about participation rates from a reduced random sample necessitated sampling the entire accessible population. Additionally, as Gall et al.

(2007) wrote, “inferential statistics can be used with data collected from a convenience sample if the sample is carefully conceptualized to represent a particular population” (p. 176).

All students who either participated in the community service office’s service organization (e.g. Justice in January) or were on the general listserv received the email invitations to participate in the study. Of the students who completed the questionnaire, only respondents who indicated that they had participated in a service organization and completed the engagement questions and the Social Justice scale of the CASQ were included in the regression sample. While there is no perfect percentage for survey research that represents sufficient participation, recommendations include 30 participants for correlational research, at least 15 participants for causal-comparative and experimental research, and when subgroups are of interest, at least 100 participants with 20-50 participants per subgroup (Gall et al., 2007). Sample size is also important when considering the number of predictors intended for analysis with a minimum of 10 participants per predictor (J. Cohen, Cohen, West, & Aiken, 2003).

An a priori power analysis was conducted in order to estimate an appropriate sample size for the dissertation study, given the desired power and estimated effect size. Similar studies were difficult to find, given the unique nature of the student engagement variable as a predictor of social justice attitudes. In Warren’s (2012) meta-analysis of the impact of service-learning on student learning, 14 quasi-experimental published and unpublished studies were included that resulted in an average effect size ( $d$ ) of .33. Celio et al. (2011) found similar results from their meta-analysis of 62 studies on the impact of service-learning with a range of mean effect sizes ( $g$ ) from .27 to .43. Power analyses were run that varied the effect size from .27 to .43 with  $\alpha$  and power set at .05 and .95, respectively. The required sample sizes were 80 and 52, respectively. Given that these studies looked at service-learning, which involves reflection, class discussion,

and application to students' lives beyond direct service (Einfeld & Collins, 2008), a smaller effect size was expected, as this study assessed the relationship between student engagement in a service organization and social justice attitudes. A very modest estimate of effect size,  $f^2$ , was set at .05 with  $\alpha$  and power set at .05 and .95, respectively. The number of predictors was varied from five to 10 to produce a desired range for the number of participants. This resulted in an ideal sample size between 402 and 497 (Faul, Erdfelder, Buchner, & Lang, 2009; Faul, Erdfelder, Lang, & Buchner, 2007). However, given the limited number of students participating in service organizations at the Institution, the number of predictors was decreased in order to maintain the optimum level of power for the statistical analyses.

Students who participated were entered into a raffle to win one of five \$25 Amazon gift cards. The last item on the instrument asked students if they were interested in being considered for the raffle and, if so, for their name and email address. These items were removed to de-identify the data so that students' responses remained anonymous. Participation was not reported to the institution's staff members or students in the service organizations.

## **Measures and Instrumentation**

### **Student Engagement**

For this study, student engagement was measured using open-ended items based on Kahu's (2013) theory and conceptual framework and the Civic Engagement Scale (CES). Validity and reliability evidence are presented later in the chapter. All student engagement

measures are described along with detailed methods that allow for further refinement and validation of the measures of student engagement.

### *Student engagement measures*

Student engagement in a service organization is a multi-dimensional construct that includes a student's affect, cognition, and behavior (Kahu, 2013). For the affect and cognition dimensions, students were asked open-ended questions regarding their feelings towards the service organization and what they learned as a result of their participation in the service organization (see Table 3-1 for descriptive statistics and Appendix B for items). These qualitative responses were quantitized by assigning each response a code of 1 – *Low*, 2 – *Medium*, or 3 – *High*. A rubric was created from Kahu's (2013) conceptual framework with the codes, descriptions of each code, and examples of each code (see Appendix D). For each dimension (i.e. affect and cognition), a code of 1 indicated a student demonstrated the lowest level of engagement while a score of 3 indicated the student showed the highest level of engagement. Zero was not included as a code because students were theorized to have at least some affective and cognitive engagement, given that they were taking the time to complete the questionnaire.

The rubric has descriptions and examples of each level of scoring (i.e. 1 – *Low*, 2 – *Medium*, and 3 – *High*) (See Appendix D). Two raters coded the open-ended responses using the rubric. A sample of ~10% of the responses ( $n = 16$ ) was used to establish interrater reliability. Each rater independently coded the same ~10% sample of responses. After these responses were coded, raters reviewed each code, counted the number of agreed upon responses, and resolved any discrepancies in coding. Interrater reliability was calculated by taking the total number of

agreed upon coded responses divided by the total number of responses coded and multiplying by 100 to convert to a percentage. For the affective dimension of student engagement, the interrater reliability was 88%. For the cognitive dimension of student engagement, the initial interrater reliability was 75%. After discussion on the discrepancies in codes, 100% agreement was reached on the sample. Negative case analysis was used to further refine the rubric and coding rules. Russ-Eft and Prescill (2009) described negative case analysis as a process to “develop an explanation that can handle all of the known cases” (p. 369) by using theory to create a rubric then comparing data to the rubric until cases that do not fit the codes are found. These negative cases are used to modify the rubric or the cases are made to fit by categorizing them most appropriately. Despite completing a negative case analysis and having interest in refining the rubric, the rubric was found to be robust enough to categorize all of the responses with no changes. After interrater reliability was established and negative case analysis completed, the remaining responses were independently coded by the principal investigator. To prevent rater drift, a small sample ( $n = 5$ ) of the remaining responses was used to check interrater reliability.

The final dimension, behavior, was measured by time (i.e. hours spent engaging in activities for the service organization such as meetings, planning/preparation outside of meetings, direct service, and other activities) and effort. Although Kahu (2013) listed three dimensions of behavior (i.e. time and effort, interaction, and participation), two questions were sufficient to incorporate these aspects of behavior. For the time dimension of behavior, students responded with the average number of hours they spent per week engaging in the service organization. Respondents were able to fill in text rather than choose from a drop-down list of hours spent per week. For any range reported (e.g. 10-15 hours), the average of the range was used (e.g. 12.5 hours). Responses ranged from a minimum of one hour to a maximum of 12.5 hours per week.

Given that the present study only sampled students who completed some form of service, no respondents answered zero or no hours of service. The minimum approximation of hours per week given by respondents ( $n = 100$ ) was one hour with 7.40% of the sample indicating this time.

An unanticipated issue occurred while coding the average hours spent per week engaging in service with the service organization. The service immersion service organizations (i.e. Justice in January, Mission: Possible, and Reality Camp) entailed a week-long service experience where students were fully immersed within a service environment. Given the unique nature of how hours accumulated for service immersion students, an approximation of the average time commitment over an academic year was calculated as 1.5 hours per week. This average is the closest approximation that could be made, utilizing the expertise of the staff within the community service office. However, the wording of this item threatens the validity of the behavior measure for students in the service immersion category (11.30% of the sample,  $n = 80$ ) of the service organizations because students' answers were not used.

The effort dimension of behavior was measured using a sliding scale where students rated their effort in the service organization from 1 to 10. A 1 indicated a student exerted very little effort and a 10 indicated a student exhibited considerable effort toward the service organization. The response format of rating 1 to 10 is a common response method and was hypothesized to be easier to conceptualize for undergraduate students in this study and therefore used to increase the validity and variance of responses. The time and effort responses were originally intended to be combined into one behavior score, given Kahu's (2013) theory of their relationship as closely related dimensions of behavioral engagement. However, the measures did not correlate as expected ( $\rho = .19, p = .094$ ) and appeared to be measuring separate constructs, which warranted

entering them as separate variables into the analyses. The central tendency of time and effort behavior scores are displayed in Table 3-1.

Table 3-1. Student Engagement, Civic Behavior Scale, and Social Justice Scale Score Descriptives ( $N = 80$ ).

Measure	Range		Mean	Standard Deviation
	Potential	Actual		
Affect	1 to 3	1 to 3	1.93	0.76
Behavior				
Time	0 to ~70	0.50 to 10	3.00	1.88
Effort	1 to 10	2 to 10	7.63	1.82
Cognition	1 to 3	1 to 3	2.00	0.50
Civic Engagement Scale	1 to 5	1.83 to 4.83	3.93	0.57
Social Justice Scale	1 to 5	2.50 to 5.00	4.22	0.54

In the full sample ( $N = 129$ ), 34 were missing a time score, 26 were missing an effort score, 40 were missing an affective code, and 43 were missing a cognitive code. After these missing data were assessed to compile a final sample ( $n = 80$ ), there was only one respondent missing an engagement response (effort score), which was replaced with the average ( $M = 7.63$ ,  $n = 80$ ). Descriptive statistics on all engagement scores are reported in Table 3-1.



### *Civic Engagement Scale*

Developed by Doolittle and Faul (2013), the Civic Engagement Scale (CES) measures “the attitudes and behaviors that have been affected by a service-learning experience” (p. 1). The scale of interest to this study was the Behavior subscale that consists of six items asking students about their current community service participation (see Appendix B). Previous use of the instrument produced reliable ( $\alpha = .85$ ) and valid scores, with factorial validity established from principal component factor analysis (PCA) with all factor loadings above .45 (Doolittle & Faul, 2013). Additionally, a content validity coefficient of .65 was provided (Doolittle & Faul, 2013). However, the construct validity measures conducted need to be improved in order to support further use of the scale. Given these limitations and the lack of cognitive and affective dimensions, the CES was included as a validity measure for behavioral student engagement. Validity was assessed by taking the correlation between students’ engagement scores and their CES scale score.

The other scale used for this study, the Civic Attitudes and Skills Questionnaire (CASQ), has a Civic Action scale that could have been used instead of the CES to validate the behavior measure. However, the phrasing of the statements may have been confusing to students (e.g. “I plan to become involved in my community”) (Moely et al., 2002). The Behavior subscale of the CES phrases statements in the present tense: “I am involved in structured volunteer position(s) in the community” (Doolittle & Faul, 2013). Given the interest in students’ current and prior engagement, the CES was chosen to decrease the threat to validity caused by the confusing wording on the Civic Action scale of the CASQ.

### **Social justice attitudes: Civic Attitudes and Skills Questionnaire**

Social justice attitudes were measured by the Social Justice (SJ) scale from the Civic Attitudes and Skills Questionnaire (CASQ) (Moely & Ilustre, 2011, 2013; Moely et al., 2002). The CASQ is a “questionnaire designed to measure attitudes, skills, and behavioral intentions that might be affected by service-learning participation” (Moely et al., 2002, p. 15). The SJ scale has eight items with a Likert response format from 1 – *Completely Disagree* to 5 – *Agree Completely*. The CASQ scales were developed based on previous service-learning research regarding the “positive outcomes of service-learning [including] self-enhancement, understanding of self and world, and value-expression” (Moely et al., 2002, p. 15).

In previous research (Moely & Ilustre, 2011, 2013; Schamber & Mahoney, 2008; Simons & Cleary, 2005), the CASQ resulted in valid and reliable scores for undergraduate student participants. In Moely et al.’s (2002) original two-sample study, construct validity was established by the relationship of the scales to other measures, including the Modern Racism Scale and measures of motivation (Moely et al., 2002). Additionally, gender differences were found with women scoring higher than men, which aligned with previous research on social justice attitudes and behaviors. Reliability was established using a measure of internal consistency (i.e. Cronbach’s alpha) with  $\alpha = .70$  and  $\alpha = .69$  on the SJ scale, for Samples 1 and 2 respectively. The test-retest reliability measures for the SJ scale were good with  $r = .74$  and  $r = .68$ , for Samples 1 and 2 respectively (Moely et al., 2002). Studies since the scale’s validation have also resulted in valid and reliable scores (Moely & Ilustre, 2011, 2013; Schamber & Mahoney, 2008; Simons & Cleary, 2005).

For use in this study, the response format for the CASQ was slightly altered from a 1 – *Completely Disagree* to 5 – *Agree Completely* to 1 – *Strongly Disagree* to 5 – *Strongly Agree*. This change was included because the CASQ and CES items were shuffled and combined into a grid without association to a specific scale. Given both the CASQ and CES items, it was deemed appropriate to slightly alter the response options of the CASQ. Additionally, four of the CASQ items were negatively worded and were reverse coded before calculating a total score. Total scores on the CASQ and CES were calculated by computing an average for each respondent, which resulted in a potential range from 1 to 5. Missing data analysis for the CASQ and CES is discussed in the next section. Table 3-1 displays the descriptive statistics for the CASQ and CES scales.

Students of color were less likely to start and complete the Social Justice scale than their white peers,  $\chi^2(1, N = 117) = 9.78, p < .001$ . Of the 117 respondents who identified their race/ethnicity, nine were people of color (7.69%). Of the nine people of color, only three completed the SJ scale. Of those who completed the SJ scale ( $n = 3$ ), their SJ scores were, on average ( $M = 3.79, SD = 0.44$ ), lower than their white peers who completed the scale ( $n = 86, M = 4.19, SD = 0.56$ ). Although the difference in means was not significant for this sample ( $t = 1.21, p = .23$ ), the estimated power of the t-test was .27, which is low and limits the analysis of this finding. Race was included in the analyses involving the SJ scale score in order to control for the potential effect of race on SJ attitudes. Chapter 5 contains a discussion of this limitation.

## Research Design

This is a mixed-methods study with a quantitative emphasis (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). The quantitative, correlational analysis utilized self-reported measures of student engagement and social justice attitudes. The qualitative analysis was conducted from a phenomenological research perspective (Creswell, 2013). Data were collected via an online questionnaire using the software Qualtrics. Once data were collected using the online questionnaire, initial exploratory data analysis, data cleaning, and missing analysis were conducted. During the exploratory data analysis, general descriptive statistics (e.g. measures of central tendency, frequency, etc.) were run on all variables. This provided an opportunity to see if there was anything unexpected in the data (Gall et al., 2007). There were no major issues with the data that needed to be addressed.

Once the initial descriptive statistics were run and analyzed, data cleaning and missing data analysis were conducted. The purpose of this stage of data analysis was to “find and eliminate data entry and other errors...and prepare data for analysis” (Merson & McHale, 2010). The function “Identify Duplicate Cases” was run in SPSS. The purpose of this analysis was for the software to detect any responses that were similar enough to warrant concern that a respondent completed the questionnaire more than once. Results from this analysis came back negative, meaning no duplicate cases were detected.

Several items had options for students to respond with other information that was not listed in the answer options. These “other” responses were either collapsed into an existing option or a new option was generated, based on the limitations of the options and the appropriateness of the responses. For the item asking students if they were a leader or a general

member of their service organization, there were four respondents who indicated another status and provided an explanation. The greater or more engaged status (i.e. leader) was used to recode students if they indicated they had been both a leader and a general member. The other responses were coded as general member, given the nature of the response. For the item asking students about what types of student organizations they participated in, categories were added based on students' other responses, including Athletics; Student Leadership, Government, Advisory; and Other/Unknown. The Other/Unknown category was used for students who indicated they were involved in another type of student organization but did not include an explanation. The last item that had an other option was the service organization with which undergraduate students indicated they were most engaged and used to respond to the engagement items. The other responses resulted in the creation of four additional service organizations (see Appendix A for list of organizations).

Given the number of service organizations with a small number of participants ( $n < 5$ ) and the threat of identification of participants during analysis, student organizations were clustered by organization type: mentoring, philanthropy, service immersion, and student engagement. These categories align with the community service office's categories for service organizations. Service organizations were collapsed into these four broader "type" categories, which were described previously in this chapter.

An analysis of missing data was conducted to determine the type of missingness (i.e. missing completely at random, missing at random, and missing not at random) and the appropriate measures to address the issue (Merson & McHale, 2010). On the independent variables, 40 were missing an affective response, 43 were missing a cognitive response, 34 were missing a behavior – time response, and 26 were missing a behavior – effort response ( $N = 129$ ).

On the dependent variable, 30 were missing all item responses on the Social Justice scale and two were missing one item on the Social Justice scale. Dummy codes were created for each independent and dependent variable (0 – ‘Not Missing’ and 1 ‘Missing’) in order to conduct chi-square tests of independence and t-tests on the relationship between the missing data and relevant demographic characteristics (J. Cohen et al., 2003; Merson & McHale, 2010).

The only significant difference by demographic variables (i.e. college, gender, race/ethnicity, class standing, GPA, and service organization categories) was race/ethnicity  $\chi^2(1, N = 117) = 9.78, p < .001$ . Given the small sample size of people of color in the study, a collapsed dichotomous variable (0 – ‘White’ and 1 – ‘Person of Color’) was created and the Crosstab was re-run to increase the power of the test. Differences were again found on the missing SJ scale according to race/ethnicity with a higher number of people of color not completing the SJ scale than expected,  $\chi^2(1, N = 117) = 9.78, p < .001$ . People of color were more likely to skip the SJ scale items, resulting in no SJ scale score. This created a limitation in the generalizability of the results. Given this finding, race was included in the ANOVA and regression analyses as a control variable.

A post hoc power analysis of the chi-square test of independence on the missing SJ scores by race resulted in 40% power, which was not enough power to initially conclude that the data were or were not missing completely at random (MCAR). Of those who completed the SJ scale items, two respondents skipped one item on the CASQ. Both of the skipped questions were negatively worded items (i.e. “We need to look no further than the individual in assessing his/her problems.” and “People are poor because they choose to be poor.”) but no other associations were found so the data were considered MCAR. For these two cases, total scores were calculated based on the average of the other seven items in the scale and the missing items were imputed so

that the average of the eight items equaled the total score. For the CES, one respondent did not answer one of the scale items. The same method was used to replace a value to equal the average total score of the five items that had responses. Given the results of the missing analysis, race was initially included in the ANOVA and regression analyses to account for the potential effect of SJ scores not being MCAR. Results of the ANOVA and regression analyses are in Chapter 5.

### **Validity**

According to the Joint Committee report from 1999, “validity refers to the degree to which evidence and theory support the interpretations of test scores entailed by proposed uses of tests” (AERA, 1999, p. 9). Four types of validity evidence were gathered, which included evidenced based on test content, response processes, and internal structures (AERA, 1999). Evidence based on test content “refers to the themes, wording, and format of the items, tasks or questions on a test, as well as guidelines for procedures regarding administration” (AERA, 1999, p. 11). Participants were asked four questions related to their engagement (see Appendix C), which were broad enough to allow for varied engagement yet specific enough to be scored using the rubric. The questions and rubric were designed to align closely with Kahu’s (2013) descriptions of the three dimensions of student engagement.

Evidence based on response processes was noted based on conversations with the small pilot group, the nature and fit of responses to the rubric, and the open-ended question at the end of the questionnaire that asked “Is there anything you weren’t asked that you think is important to share or do you have any additional comments regarding the items on the questionnaire?” (See Appendix C). Pilot participants were contacted to ask if they were confused by any of the

questions, if the structure of the questionnaire was conducive to authentic responses, and any general feedback. Positive feedback was received regarding the clarity of the meaning of the questions with some suggestions for improving the usability and question layout. After those feedback conversations, a few grammar errors were corrected and the layout was improved to include all of the overview information on the first page.

The rubric created for scoring the open-ended student engagement questions was based on Kahu's (2013) conceptual framework of student engagement. The affective responses were coded 1, 2, and 3 with responses increasing in affective complexity starting with enthusiasm, then interest, and finally belonging. The cognitive responses were also coded 1, 2, and 3 as responses progressed from learning that did not connect beyond the service organization, learning that had one or two connections beyond the service organization, and learning that had more than two connections beyond the service organization, respectively. The responses aligned well with the rubric and both the affective and cognitive codes achieved initial interrater reliability at or above 75% with 100% agreement after discussion and recoding. Although negative case analysis was used, no changes were needed to the rubric given the fit of the responses to the rubric.

The open-ended question at the end of the questionnaire asked participants to share any additional comments related to the study. There were 19 people who responded to this question with 11 of those responses being of substance (i.e. beyond "No, thank you" or something similar). Of the 11 responses, two participants noted the use of the term "equal" and the idea of "equality versus equity." The phrase "equal opportunity" was used in one of the Social Justice scale items: "It is important that equal opportunity be available to all people." This could have been a threat to validity if participants who believed in equity responded negatively to equality because they believed in more than equal opportunity. For the two participants who commented on the need to



distinguish the two terms, their responses to the equal opportunity item were both “Agree.”

Because of the alignment in these responses, there was less concern of a threat to validity. These respondents’ concerns highlighted how the Social Justice scale may need to be revised to differentiate between participants who have an in-depth understanding of social justice, such as found in these responses with the difference between equity and equality (see Chapter 5 for further discussion and implications for future research).

Evidence based on internal structures was assessed based on the Spearman’s rank-order correlations between the dimensions of engagement (i.e. affect, cognition, and behavior), which were coded from 1 to 3. It was theorized there would be a strong, positive correlation between each dimension, given the theorized relationship between the dimensions. The behavior dimension was theorized to be the least correlated of the three measures because of the range of time requirements in each type of organization. Table 3-2 shows the Spearman’s rank-order correlations between the dimensions of student engagement, the two dimensions of behavior (i.e. time and effort), and the extent of engagement item (“To what extent are you engaged with the service organization?”). There was not sufficient evidence to find a statistically significant relationship between the two dimensions of behavior: time and effort,  $\rho = .06, p = .592$ . This was unexpected given the history of time and effort as major dimensions of behavioral engagement. There was a weak positive correlation between behavioral effort and cognitive engagement ( $\rho = .30, p = .044$ ), which could suggest participants who demonstrated greater cognitive engagement may have interpreted effort as more of a cognitive construct than a behavioral one. This finding may pose a threat to validity, however, because the time and effort dimensions were combined to represent behavioral engagement.

Table 3-2. Statistically Significant Spearman's Rank-Order Correlations Between the Student Engagement Measures and Civic Engagement Scale ( $N = 80$ ).

Variables	$P$	$p$
Affective Engagement & Cognitive Engagement	.33	.005
Affective Engagement & Extent of Engagement	.39	.003
Behavioral Engagement: Effort & CES	.38	.001
Behavioral Engagement: Effort & Extent of Engagement	.61	.000
Behavioral Engagement: Time & Extent of Engagement	.26	.020
Cognitive Engagement & Extent of Engagement	.25	.024
Extent of Engagement & CES	.34	.003

Evidence based on relations to other variables was gathered from the correlations between the dimensions of engagement, between the CES and the behavior engagement items, and between the extent of engagement item and the dimensions of engagement. Affective engagement was weakly positively correlated to both the extent of engagement ( $\rho = .397, p = .003$ ) and cognitive engagement ( $\rho = .33, p = .005$ ). As previously described in Chapter 2, affective engagement is a relatively recent addition to the measure of student engagement. Although these correlations are weak and positive, this finding affirms the importance of affective engagement to the construct of student engagement. Although weaker than expected, the

correlations provided validity evidence that the measures were related as theorized by Kahu (2013).

The behavioral engagement measures were expected to be positively correlated to the behavioral scale of the CES that was included in the study to provide validity evidence. The behavioral: effort engagement score had a weak, positive correlation to the CES score,  $\rho = .38, p = .001$ , but the behavioral: time engagement score was not statistically significantly correlated to the CES score ( $\rho = .17, p = .143$ ). Additionally, the behavior measures were not correlated to each other,  $\rho = .19, p = .094$ . The CES items ask about what students did versus how much time they spent doing civic activities, such as volunteering and participating in discussions. The lack of evidence to show a relationship between the CES and time measure of behavior does not necessarily affect the validity of the behavior scores. However, it is something to explore in future research whether or not time spent engaging is a valid measure of students' engagement in service.

Further evidence was found regarding the validity of the engagement scores with the positive correlations between the extent of engagement item and affective, behavioral, and cognitive engagement and the CES scale scores. The extent of engagement question was included to assess the validity between an item that asked students about the extent of their engagement and the indirect, open-ended items that asked students about their behaviors, feelings, and learning. Table 3-2 shows the correlation coefficients, with behavioral engagement: effort most strongly positively correlated to the extent of engagement item ( $\rho = .61, p < .001$ ). This moderate, positive correlation may represent how participants viewed behavioral engagement, in particular effort, as the signifier of their engagement. Additionally, the correlation between cognitive engagement and GPA was tested to see if cognitive engagement as

measured by this item was serving as a proxy for GPA. Using Spearman's rank correlation, the items were not statistically significantly correlated ( $\rho = .19$ ;  $p = .100$ ). This supports the conclusion that cognitive engagement was measuring something besides academic achievement. Given that all of the engagement dimensions were positively correlated to the extent of engagement item, in addition to the evidence already discussed, the interpretation of the scores as measures of engagement was considered valid.

### **Reliability**

Reliability is "the degree to which measurement error is absent from the scores yielded by a test" (Gall et al., 2007, p. 200). Cronbach's alpha was used to estimate the internal consistency reliability of each of the scales in the study (Cronbach, 1951). Coefficient alpha is often considered acceptable in social science research when  $\alpha > .70$ , however the number of items on the scale under investigation is important to note when interpreting alpha. As the number of items on a scale increases, so does alpha (Cortina, 1993). Coefficient alpha is most appropriately used in conjunction with other measures, such as factor loadings, as well as in context to better interpret the reliability of a scale (Cortina, 1993). Factor analyses were run in order to provide better information on the reliability of the CASQ and CES scales (see Table 3-3). The eigenvalues, scree plots, and structure matrices were analyzed to assess the factor structure of the scales.

Exploratory factor analysis using principal axis factoring and an oblique rotation was conducted on the SJ scale of the CASQ, which resulted in the potential for two factors (see Table 3-3). The two factors were analyzed to assess their goodness of fit with the model and theory.

The criteria of loading at or above .40 and not loading on to another factor above .30 were used to determine a factor loading (Brown, 2014). Only one item (“We need to institute reforms within the current system to change our communities.”) met these criteria with a factor loading of 0.59 on the second factor. The remaining seven items loaded on to their primary factor above 0.40 and on to the second factor above 0.30. The first factor accounted for 40.87% of the variance and the second factor accounted for an additional 14.21% of the variance. Additionally, the scree plot showed a clear elbow at two factors. Two factors were retained to explain the model (see Table 3-3), with the negatively worded items composing the second factor.

Cronbach’s alpha was used to estimate the internal consistency reliability of the scale (Cronbach, 1951) and resulted in  $\alpha = .78$ . Retaining all factors resulted in the highest Cronbach’s alpha. The two factors were analyzed according to their internal consistency reliability and theoretical base. The internal consistency reliability of the two factors were  $\alpha = .63$  (positively-worded items) and  $\alpha = .74$  (negatively-worded items), which is lower than the Cronbach’s alpha for the full SJ scale.

Table 3-3. Factor Loadings for Exploratory Factor Analysis With Principal Axis Factoring and Oblique Rotation of the Social Justice and Civic Behavior Scales ( $N = 80$ ).

Scales and Items	Factor 1	Factor 2
Social Justice Scale	$\alpha = .78$	
In order for problems to be solved, we need to change public policy.	0.555	0.434
We need to institute reforms within the current system to change our communities.	0.975	0.311

We need to change people's attitudes in order to solve social problems.	0.310	0.334
It is important that equal opportunity be available to all people.	0.397	0.316
I don't understand why some people are poor when there are boundless opportunities available to them.	0.442	0.775
People are poor because they choose to be poor.	0.368	0.696
Individuals are responsible for their own misfortunes.	0.559	0.629
We need to look no further than the individual in assessing his/her problems.	0.179	0.585
<hr/>		
Civic Behavior Scale	$\alpha = .74$	
I am involved in structured volunteer position(s) in the community.	0.579	-
When working with others, I make positive changes in the community.	0.680	-
I help members of my community.	0.834	-
I stay informed of events in my community.	0.443	-
I participate in discussions that raise issues of social responsibility.	0.415	-
I contribute to charitable organizations within the community.	0.614	-
<hr/>		

The CES had higher average factor loadings, with all items loading above .400. The eigenvalues and scree plot indicated a one-factor structure, which explained 46.66% of the variance. The factor loadings are displayed in Table 3-3. The reliability of the SJ and CES scales were good,  $\alpha = .78$  and  $\alpha = .74$ , respectively. For each scale, the item-total statistics were

interpreted to see if alpha would increase if any of the items were removed. As previously discussed, all items were retained given there would be no increase in alpha if one of the items were removed.

Additionally, it was hypothesized there would be variability in students' responses on the engagement measure, representing the variability that existed in the engagement of the members within the service organization. Measures of central tendency were run to better understand the reliability of the student engagement measures. Table 3-1 displays the mean and standard deviations of the engagement measures. The distribution in participants' responses was approximately normal, with affective engagement having the lowest mean and highest standard deviation ( $M = 1.93$ ,  $SD = 0.76$ ), followed by cognitive engagement ( $M = 2.00$ ;  $SD = 0.50$ ), behavioral engagement: time ( $M = 3.00$ ,  $SD = 1.88$ ), and behavioral engagement: effort ( $M = 7.63$ ,  $SD = 1.81$ ). . Scores on the engagement measures did not have central tendency statistics that would make them concerning and were considered reliable measures for the purposes of this study.

## **Procedures**

### **Pilot study**

The researcher asked content experts (i.e. community service office staff), other research colleagues, and a small group of students to complete the questionnaire ( $N = 11$ ). This allowed the researcher to test Qualtrics, the wording of the items, and receive any additional feedback on the questionnaire. Insight was gained as to the usability of the questionnaire and Qualtrics. The

questionnaire was adjusted based on the results of the pilot study, including fixing grammar mistakes, rewriting confusing wording, adjusting one of the response scales, and updating the item numbering. The final instrument included 37 items with questions grouped by blocks (i.e. introduction, demographics, service engagement, attitudes and behaviors, open comments, and raffle participation) (See Appendix C for full instrument).

### **Data collection**

An online questionnaire in Qualtrics was used to collect data from participants. A general survey link was created and distributed to participants via email. The questionnaire was open for three weeks during which time the students received an initial invitation email from the general listserv and/or their service organization's listserv. A second round of emails were sent to students after one week of the questionnaire being open. The body of the email invited students to participate in the study and referenced the gift card drawing incentive.

The online questionnaire's opening page had the following information: purpose; procedures; voluntary participation; right to ask questions; contact information; and verification non-minor status (See Appendix C). Participants were not required to answer the questions and were allowed to quit at any time. The last two items on the questionnaire asked students if they were interested in being included in the raffle to win an Amazon gift card. Student names and email addresses were collected and separated from student responses before data analysis in order to maintain anonymity. Students were made aware of this procedure on the introduction page of the study within Qualtrics before completing the questionnaire.



### **Data analysis by question**

The purpose of this study was to measure the extent and nature of undergraduate student engagement in service organizations and to describe the relationship between student engagement and social justice attitudes. The research questions with corresponding analyses are below.

1. For undergraduate students participating in service organizations, what is the extent of their social justice attitudes?

Data were collected via the Social Justice (SJ) scale from the Civic Attitudes and Skills Questionnaire (CASQ) (Moely et al., 2002). Descriptive statistics were run to report an overview of undergraduate students' SJ scores, including the range, median, mean, standard deviation, skewness, and kurtosis.

2. Do undergraduate students' social justice attitudes differ by gender and college within service organization types (i.e. within groups) or by service organization types (i.e. between groups)?

Data were collected via a series of demographic items at the beginning of the questionnaire. Initial descriptive statistics were run to describe the central tendency of the participants within each service organization on all demographic variables. An ANOVA was run to assess the differences by gender and college on the outcome variable (i.e. social justice attitudes) within each service organization type and between each service organization type (i.e. mentoring, philanthropy, service immersion, and student engagement). Although race was initially included because of the results of the missing analysis, it was removed after not being a statistically significant predictor in the model. Given that the number of observations in the different treatment combinations were unequal, the Type III method (Shaw & Mitchell-Olds, 1993) was used to analyze the ANOVA results. The Type III method uses “*unweighted* marginal means,” which controls for the effects of other variables that could confound the results (Shaw &

Mitchell-Olds, 1993). Additionally, the ANOVA was run twice (i.e. once with the original SJ scores and once with transformed and normalized SJ scores) to address concerns with the negatively skewed distribution.

3. For undergraduate students participating in a service organization, what is the extent of their engagement?

There were several measures used to assess undergraduate students' engagement in service organizations: an item asking about the extent of their engagement; two open-ended items asking about their affective and cognitive engagement; and two quantitative items asking about their behavioral engagement. For the first measure, respondents were asked "To what extent are you engaged with the service organization?" Data were collected via responses to a sliding scale with values ranging from 1 – *Not Very Engaged* to 10 – *Very Engaged*. Respondents were also asked to respond to two open-ended items asking about their affective and cognitive engagement. Responses were quantitized as either 1 – *Low*, 2 – *Medium*, or 3 – *High* using a rubric created from Kahu's (2012) conceptual framework of student engagement (see Appendix D). Once responses were coded, responses were re-read by each code to find textural descriptions that exemplified the codes. Behavioral engagement was measured by combining two items: one asking students to report the time they have engaged with the organization and the other asking them to rate the effort they have expended toward the service organization. Descriptive statistics were run on all measures to report an overview of the extent of students' engagement.

4. How do undergraduate students experience their affective and cognitive engagement in service organizations?

A phenomenological research perspective was used to approach the qualitative analysis. Creswell (2013) explained how "phenomenological stud[ies] describe the common meaning for

several individuals of their lived experiences of a concept of phenomenon” (p. 76). First, I horizontalized the data by identifying meaning units within the responses that related to the research question. Next, the meaning units were reduced to clusters, which were further defined as the meaning units were combined. Finally, the clusters were studied to synthesize them into broader themes in order to describe the experience of the students in the sample. This iterative process led me through several exhaustive readings of the data to ensure I had best captured the phenomenon. To write about the phenomenon in response to the research question, I went back through the themes to create a textural and subsequently a structural description of the data with quotes from the students’ responses (Moustakas, 1994).

5. What is the relationship between undergraduate students’ engagement in service organizations and their social justice attitudes?

A linear regression was run to assess the relationship between the independent variable (i.e. student engagement) and the dependent variable (i.e. social justice attitudes), while controlling for gender and college. Race was omitted since it was not a significant predictor in the model. Variables were entered in blocks in order to isolate the variance accounted for by the demographic characteristics and the independent variables in predicting the dependent variable. Blocked hierarchical regressions include separate blocks of variables ordered according to their importance to the regression model (Howitt & Cramer, 2008). The first block included variables for gender, college in which the students’ major resides, and a computed interaction term between gender and college. The second block included the three independent engagement variables (i.e. affective, behavioral, and cognitive scores). As with all of the statistical tests, power analyses and effect size indicators were run in order to assess the generalizability and practical significance of the results.

## Chapter 4

### Results and Discussion

The purpose of this study was to measure the extent and nature of undergraduate student engagement in service organizations and to describe the relationship between student engagement and social justice attitudes. Based on Kahu's (2013) conceptual framework of student engagement, a mixed-methods study with a quantitative emphasis (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004) was conducted in order to best address the research questions. The undergraduate students in this study participated in co-curricular, service organizations that focused on a variety of social justice and civic concerns. In this chapter, results and discussion are organized by research question. The chapter ends with a summary of the findings and the generalizability of results.

#### Data analysis by question

##### Question 1: Extent of social justice attitudes

1. For undergraduate students participating in a service organization, what is the extent of their social justice attitudes?

Data were collected via the Social Justice (SJ) scale from the Civic Attitudes and Skills Questionnaire (CASQ) (Moely et al., 2002). Descriptive statistics were run to report an overview of undergraduate students' SJ scores, including the range, median, mean, standard deviation, skewness, and kurtosis. The range of possible total scores was from 1 to 5, however the range of the final regression sample of total scores on the SJ scale of the CASQ was from 2.50 to 5 ( $n =$

80). Respondents were tightly packed at the higher end of the range,  $Mdn = 4.25$ ,  $M = 4.22$ ,  $SD = 0.54$ , and scores were not normally distributed. The scores were negatively skewed,  $-0.96$  ( $SE = 0.27$ ), with a kurtosis of  $1.00$  ( $SE = 0.53$ ). The averages of the item responses ranged from 3.94 to 4.61, which corresponded to the items “In order for problems to be solved, we need to change public policy.” and the reverse-coded item “People are poor because they choose to be poor.” The item with the largest standard deviation ( $SD = 1.13$ ) was the reverse-coded item “We need to look no further than the individual in assessing his/her problems.” whereas the item with the lowest standard deviation ( $SD = 0.66$ ) was “People are poor because they choose to be poor.” Full results are reported in Table 4-1.

Table 4-1. Central Tendency of the Social Justice Scale Items ( $N = 80$ ).

Items	<i>Md</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Social Justice Scale	4.25	4.22	0.54
In order for problems to be solved, we need to change public policy.	4.00	3.93	0.90
We need to institute reforms within the current system to change our communities.	4.00	4.20	0.75
We need to change people’s attitudes in order to solve social problems.	4.00	4.25	0.83
It is important that equal opportunity be available to all people.	5.00	4.43	0.82
I don’t understand why some people are poor when there are boundless opportunities available to them.*	5.00	4.30	0.92
People are poor because they choose to be poor.*	5.00	4.61	0.66
Individuals are responsible for their own misfortunes.*	4.00	4.03	0.84

We need to look no further than the individual in assessing his/her problems.*	4.00	4.01	1.13
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*Note.* Items with an \* were reverse coded.

### *Discussion*

Students in the sample had, on average, high SJ attitudes, considering the average was 4.22 out of 5. The high score and low standard deviation on the item “People are poor because they choose to be poor.” suggested that students understood that although individuals may exhibit behaviors or attitudes that increase their likelihood of being or staying in poverty, it is not a conscious choice. However, the large standard deviation for the item “We need to look no further than the individual in assessing his/her problems.” demonstrated that there may be slight disagreement among students about the causes of social justice issues. Some students may understand the generational or systemic issues that keep marginalized groups oppressed, while other students may not understand or strongly agree with this concept.

Students were less in agreement when it came to what to do about poverty. The item on changing public policy had an average rating equivalent to Agree but had a large standard deviation ( $M = 3.94$ ,  $SD = 0.90$ ). Students recognized the inequality but may have had different views, potentially ascribed to political beliefs, on what to do about it. The public policy item “In order for problems to be solved, we need to change public policy.” is very similar to the item “We need to institute reforms within the current system to change our communities.” with one slight yet significant difference. In the former item, the change is happening to the policy and suggests a fundamental policy shift. Whereas in the latter item, the change is within the current system.

Students were more in agreement with the latter item than they were with the former. Although students may agree change needs to happen, the variance in response to this item may indicate the slight difference in what students think should be done to help people. It is positive to see the item on systems had a high average. This could indicate a desire to change larger systems in addition to individual policies.

Despite these differences in item means, all responses were tightly packed near the top. The students in this study reported very similar social justice attitudes and the extent of those attitudes was high. This study did not directly measure when they acquired or increased those social justice attitudes, although some students shared that information in their responses to the student engagement items. Given the written responses by students, it is likely that the extent of students' social justice attitudes were high prior to engaging in the service organization and those beliefs were affirmed and strengthened from engagement in the service organizations. Students reported deepening their knowledge, behaviors, and feelings as a result of their engagement. See Question 4 for more detail on this conclusion.

### ***Summary***

On average, students reported high social justice attitudes (i.e.  $M = 4.22$  within a range of 1 to 5). Students' SJ scores were negatively skewed and not normally distributed. The range of scores was limited from 2.50 to 5 from a possible range of 1 to 5. This tight grouping of scores at the top of the range is discussed in more detail in Chapter 5.

## Question 2: Differences in social justice attitudes by service organization

2. Do undergraduate students' social justice attitudes differ by gender and college within service organization types (i.e. within groups) or by service organization types (i.e. between groups)?

Data were collected via a series of demographic items at the beginning of the questionnaire. Initial descriptive statistics were run to describe the central tendency of the participants within each service organization on all demographic variables. An ANOVA was run to assess the differences by gender and college on the outcome variable (i.e. social justice attitudes) within each service organization type and between each service organization type (i.e. mentoring, philanthropy, service immersion, and student engagement). Race was initially included as a control variable, given the findings from the missing data analysis. Because the number of observations in the different treatment combinations were unequal, the Type III method (Shaw & Mitchell-Olds, 1993) was used to analyze the ANOVA results. The Type III method uses “*unweighted* marginal means,” which controls for the effects of other variables that could confound the results (Shaw & Mitchell-Olds, 1993). Additionally, the ANOVA was run twice (i.e. once with the original SJ scores and once with transformed and normalized SJ scores) to address concerns with the negatively skewed distribution.

An initial 3x3x3 ANOVA was run that included race as a control variable, given the results of the missing analysis. After the variable was not significant for this test ( $F(6, 65) = 1.29$ ,  $p = .272$ ) the ANOVA was run as a 3x2x2 design to test the difference in means on the dependent variable, social justice attitudes, within and between service organization types by gender and college. There were three service organization types (i.e. mentoring, service immersion, and student engagement), two gender identities (i.e. women and men), and two college categories (i.e.



Arts and Sciences versus not in Arts and Sciences: Business, Education, Engineering and Applied Science, and Nursing and Human Physiology). Initial descriptive statistics were run to offer information on the central tendency of the participants within each service organization on each of the characteristics. Estimated marginal means were used because SJ scores were not normally distributed. Descriptive statistics are presented in Table 4-2.

Table 4-2. Estimated Marginal Means of Students' Social Justice Scores by Service Organization Type and Demographic Characteristics ( $N = 80$ ).

Measure	<i>n</i>	<i>EMM</i>	<i>SE</i>
Service Organization Categories			
Mentoring	40	4.21	0.11
Service Immersion	9	4.32	0.12
Student Engagement	31	4.08	0.19
Gender			
Female	64	4.25	0.09
Male	16	4.12	0.13
College			
Arts & Sciences	48	4.35	0.10
Not in Arts & Sciences	32	4.00	0.12

*Note.* The colleges not in Arts and Sciences include Business, Education, Engineering and Applied Science, and Nursing and Human Physiology. Means reported in this table are estimated marginal means, due to the unequal sample sizes between groups.

Demographic data were collected via a series of demographic items at the beginning of the questionnaire, including gender identity, race/ethnicity, religion, class standing, type of involvement, living situation, GPA, major, and minor. Given the literature review and the limited number of participants, only the most influential predictors of social justice attitudes were included in the model (i.e. gender and college). Although service organization types were categorized into mentoring, philanthropy, service immersion, and student engagement,

philanthropy was too small ( $n = 3$ ) to retain as its own category, for fear of violating student confidentiality and decreasing the power of the test. Respondents in the philanthropy category were added to the student engagement category, which best resembled the purpose and general activities of the philanthropic service organizations. This resulted in a total of 29 students in the student engagement category. A one-way ANOVA was run to explore the differences in SJ scores by service organization and no statistically significant differences were detected  $F(2, 77) = 0.96, p = .389$ .

Gender has previously been shown to predict social justice attitudes with women having, on average, higher levels of social justice attitudes than men (Moely et al., 2002; Reason & Hemer, 2014). Gender was a dichotomous variable (1 – Woman, 2 – Man). Although respondents were able to indicate their gender identity as either man, woman, or transgender, only those identifying as men and women answered the item. A Wilcoxon-Mann-Whitney test was run to assess the difference in the non-normally distributed SJ scores by gender and no statistically significant differences were detected ( $z = -0.39, p = .695$ ).

College major has also been shown to predict differences in social justice attitudes (Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005; Reason & Hemer, 2014). However, given the small sample size included in the regression ( $n = 80$ ), college was chosen instead of college major, given the small number of students in each major, with the majority of majors containing under five students. The sample ( $n = 80$ ) was more evenly spread across colleges with Business Administration, Education, Engineering and Applied Sciences, and Nursing and Human Physiology having 6, 8, 8, and 10 respondents, respectively. The College of Arts and Sciences had significantly more respondents ( $n = 48$ ). College was further collapsed into students in the College of Arts and Sciences and students not in the College of Arts and Sciences. The College of Arts and Sciences

was used as the comparison group, given its large size and hypothesized difference between the respondents in the other colleges. This was a logical grouping because the other colleges are in more professionally-based fields (e.g. education, engineering, etc.) and also do not require a social justice course, unlike the College of Arts and Sciences. Additionally, previous studies have found students in the social sciences scored higher on average on civic learning outcome measures than students in other colleges (Kuh & Umbach, 2004). A Wilcoxon-Mann-Whitney test was run to assess the difference in the non-normally distributed SJ scores by college and there was a statistically significant difference by college ( $z = -2.69, p = .007$ ).

Before the model was run, assumptions and outlier analyses were conducted. A factorial ANOVA has the following assumptions: independence of observations, normality of the continuous dependent variable, normality of residuals, and homoscedasticity (Cohen et al., 2003). The assumptions were tested using a variety of methods. A histogram of students' SJ scores showed a possible skewed and kurtotic distribution. Upon further analysis, SJ scores ( $N = 99$ ) were negatively skewed at  $-1.03$  ( $SE = 0.24$ ) and leptokurtotic at  $1.19$  ( $SE = 0.48$ ). Analysis of outliers using Hoaglan and Iglewicz's (1987) method of taking the difference between the quartiles and multiplying by a factor of 2.2 showed no outliers. However, further review using Hoaglan, Iglewicz, and Tukey's (1986) original factor of 1.5 led to three outlier cases with SJ scores of 2.25, 2.5, 2.63. Two of the three cases (2.5 and 2.63) were also detected as outliers in the analysis conducted for the regression model (discussed later in this chapter under research Question 5). The students with scores of 2.50 and 2.63 were left in the regression sample, despite exhibiting outlier characteristics, because they increased the variance in the sample. The third outlier (2.25) was the most extreme value and was not included in the regression model outlier analysis because of listwise deletion.

Men were represented almost to the exact proportion in the final sample as they were in the overall sample  $\chi^2(1, N = 209) = 0.012, p = .524$ . However, in the outlier sample, men were slightly overrepresented, but there was no statistically significant result in the Crosstab analysis  $\chi^2(1, N = 139) = 0.651, p = .420$ . There were 10 participants who were investigated as outlier concerns based on the various tests. Of the 10 cases, 70% were women and 30% were men. The full sample was 20.00% men and 80.00% women. Given that the Chi-Square Tests of Independence was not statistically significant, men and women were considered to be excluded by acceptable proportions.

Only one case was excluded from the ANOVA because of outlier concerns, which adjusted the mean to 4.22 ( $SD = 0.54$ ) with a kurtosis of 1.00 ( $SE = 0.53$ ). The data were still negatively skewed at -0.96 ( $SE = 0.27$ ). Two different types of normed dependent variables were created – one using Templeton's (2011) two-step approach and the other using a logarithmic transformation for negatively skewed variables (Grande, 2015). Although the logarithmic transformation produced the most approximate normal distribution of the dependent variable, the transformation of the values led to difficult interpretation because it reversed the SJ scores (i.e. low scores were now high and high scores were now low). Therefore, the original SJ scores and the two-step approach (approximately normally-distributed SJ scores) were used to assess the impact of running the model with normal and non-normal data.

A series of Shapiro-Wilk tests were run to assess the normality of the dependent variable for each of the groups within the independent variables (i.e. gender and college). Gender and college were approximately normally distributed, according to the Shapiro-Wilk tests,  $p > .05$ . A Shapiro-Wilk test was also run with the transformed, normal data and all distributions were normal within all categories ( $p < .05$ ). Normality testing for residuals was conducted using the

unstandardized residuals of the SJ scores. The unstandardized residuals were normally distributed according to the Shapiro-Wilk statistic of .98 ( $p = .239$ ), histogram, and the Q-Q plot. Levene's Test of Equality for Error Variances was not statistically significant ( $F = 1.79$ ,  $p = .098$ ), therefore the assumption of homogeneity of variances was met.

There was not sufficient evidence to support interaction or main effects in the three-way ANOVA,  $F(10, 69) = 1.83$ ,  $p = .072$ . Power was calculated for the three tests with one df (i.e. A, B, and AxB) at .99 and for the four tests with two df (i.e. C, AxC, BxC, and AxBxC) at .99, which means that there is a 99% chance of correctly rejecting the null hypothesis when it is false (Cohen, 1992). This is an acceptable level of power, according to Cohen (1992) who suggested a threshold of .80. The three-way ANOVA was re-run using the normally distributed SJ score data, which produced similar results,  $F(10, 69) = 1.59$ ,  $p = .129$ . There was not sufficient evidence to say that undergraduate students' social justice attitudes differed by demographic characteristics (i.e. gender and college) within service organization types (i.e. within groups) or by service organization types (i.e. between groups).

### ***Discussion***

The ANOVA revealed that, for this sample, students' SJ scores were similar across student organization types (see Table 4-2 for estimated marginal means of SJ scores by student organization type). Given the low number of men ( $n = 16$ ) compared to women ( $n = 64$ ), no conclusions can be drawn about the effect of gender within and between service organizations. Although this imbalance existed in the full sample and was maintained in the final sample of 80, the imbalance makes the results questionable. As Shaw and Mitchell-Olds (1993) described, "the

consequences of severe imbalance leading to extreme multicollinearity is that the power of the design is reduced, and it is therefore quite possible to overlook an effect...when the effect truly exists” (p. 1643). Additionally, the representation of men and women in the study in comparison to the representation of men and women who participated in service organizations through the community service office in 2015-2016 was statistically significantly different,  $\chi^2(1, N = 1068) = 5.42, p = .012$ , with women being over-represented in the full and final samples. Conclusions about any differences by gender within and between service organizations cannot be drawn.

For this sample, there were no differences by service organization in students’ social justice attitudes. Shaw and Mitchell-Olds (1993) cautioned that “when the data are unbalanced without missing cells we urge particular caution in interpretation of failure to reject null hypotheses” (p. 1643). Type III analysis cannot isolate the effects of each factor, unlike Type I or Type II analyses. For this sample, it is unlikely, given the range of cognitive engagement responses that demonstrated varying depths of learning, that students do not have different SJ attitudes by service organization. Also, previous research regarding the impact of service raised concerns about certain types of service (e.g. those with a less critical lens) that may actually affirm and maintain bias and stereotypes by those who serve on those they are serving. Additionally, all service is not created equal. It is more likely that the sample of students who responded to this study (who had, on average, strong social justice attitudes) were not different enough to detect any differences by gender or college within and between service organizations. The scale used for this study also may not have been sensitive enough to detect differences in the upper range of scores, which created a ceiling effect. The possibility of a ceiling effect and use of a different instrument to measure SJ attitudes is discussed in Chapter 5.

## *Summary*

There were no statistically significant differences in social justice attitudes by gender and college between and within the mentoring, service immersion, and student engagement service organization categories. The imbalance of men and women in the final sample made any conclusions regarding gender inconclusive. Although no differences were found in SJ scores by service organization category, there may have been a ceiling effect that hid differences in students' true SJ scores.

### **Question 3: Extent of engagement**

3. For undergraduate students participating in a service organization, what is the extent of their engagement?

There were several measures used to assess undergraduate students' engagement in service organizations: an item asking about the extent of their engagement; two open-ended items asking about their affective and cognitive engagement; and two quantitative items asking about their behavioral engagement. For the first measure, respondents were asked "To what extent are you engaged with the service organization?" Data were collected via responses to a sliding scale with values ranging from 1 – *Not Very Engaged* to 10 – *Very Engaged*. Respondents were also asked to respond to two open-ended items asking about their affective and cognitive engagement ("Describe your feelings towards the service organization." and "What have you learned from the service organization?", respectively). Responses were quantitized as either 1 – *Low*, 2 – *Medium*, or 3 – *High* using a rubric created from Kahu's (2012) conceptual framework of student engagement (See Appendix D). Once responses were coded, responses were re-read by each

code to find textual descriptions that exemplified the codes. Behavioral engagement was measured by combining two items: one asking students to report the time they have engaged with the organization and the other asking them to rate the effort they have expended toward the service organization. Descriptive statistics were run on all measures to report an overview of the extent of students' engagement.

For the first measure, respondents were asked "To what extent are you engaged with the service organization?" The range of the regression sample ( $n = 80$ ) was from 2 to 10 with  $M = 7.70$ ,  $SD = 2.10$ ,  $Mdn = 8.00$ , and mode = 10. Differences were explored by demographic characteristics (i.e. class standing, college, gender, GPA, living situation, race/ethnicity, religion, and service organization categories), using chi-square tests of independence ( $p < .05$ ) and t-tests ( $p < .01$ , after Bonferroni correction). None were statistically significantly different. Appendix A, Table A2, displays the frequency, mode, and composition of the demographic characteristics.

Respondents were also asked to respond to two, open-ended items about their affective and cognitive engagement. Responses were quantitized as either 1 – *Low*, 2 – *Medium*, or 3 – *High* using a rubric created from Kahu's (2012) conceptual framework of student engagement (See Appendix D for full list of responses and codes and Table 3-1 for means and standard deviations). Table 4-3 shows the rubric for coding affective and cognitive engagement, the frequency of each code, and the percentage of each code per engagement type.

Table 4-3. Student Engagement Rubric.

Engagement Dimension	Code	Description	<i>n</i>	%
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	1	Describes little to no enthusiasm, interest, and belonging toward the organization with a primary focus on enthusiasm	26	32.50%
Affect	2	Describes feelings of enthusiasm and interest toward the organization with little to no expression of belonging	34	42.50%
	3	Describes feelings that exhibit strong connections to the organization via enthusiasm, interest, and/or belonging	20	25.00%
Engagement Dimension	Code	Description	<i>n</i>	%
	1	Describes learning that does not connect beyond the service organization	10	12.50%
Cognition	2	Describes learning that exhibits one to two connections and associations beyond the service organization to broader ideas or areas of life	60	75.00%
	3	Describes learning that exhibits more than two connections and associations beyond the service organization to broader ideas or areas of life	10	12.50%

Students' responses provided a richer picture of how students described their engagement in a service organization. For students whose affective engagement was rated a 3, their responses demonstrated enthusiasm, interest, and belonging. The experiences had a significant impact on students, such as demonstrated in this response: "In this organization I have always felt welcome. It has created a warm community, where you can develop deep personal friendships and connections." Other students also described their service as a "powerful experience," with one student describing how their "[participation] ha[d] been the basis of [their] development within (sic) and understanding of all things related to addressing social justice issues."

For students whose affective engagement was rated a 2, their responses demonstrated feelings of enthusiasm and interest toward the organization with little to no expression of belonging. Respondents described their enjoyment and fulfillment from service: "I really enjoy it and love getting to work with the kid I am assigned to tutor." Responses coded as a 1 exhibited little to no enthusiasm, interest, and belonging toward the service organization with a primary focus on enthusiasm. Most responses used descriptors such as "love," "fun," and "great" to describe their feelings towards the service organization. Within the sample, 32.50%, 42.50%, and 25.00% were coded as 1, 2, and 3, respectively.

The cognitive codes were distinguished by the extent and depth to which respondents' described their learning beyond the service organization. As shown in Table 4-3, levels of cognitive engagement were determined based on the number of connections made beyond the service organization. For respondents coded as a 3, they described learning in other areas of life, such as this student who described what they learned from mentoring children.

I have learned about the powerful impact a mentor/role model can have on an individual without even realizing it. I have learned the importance of being intentional and authentic with one's actions as well as the significance of consistency. The youth that I worked

with live challenging lives that are often extremely unpredictable and the opportunities for consistency this service organization offers is the solidarity they often need.

Responses coded as a 2 also exhibited valuable learning, but with fewer connections and depth than those coded a 3. These responses were characterized by learning patience, communication, and leadership. Finally, responses coded as a 1 had little to no connection beyond the service organization, such as this student who said they learned “[t]hat the children really love having mentors.” For the cognitive responses, 12.50%, 75.00%, and 12.50% were coded as 1, 2, and 3, respectively.

Behavioral engagement was measured via two items: one asking students to report the average time per week they engaged with the organization and the other asking them to rate the effort they expended toward the service organization. Students spent an average of three hours ( $SD = 1.88$ ) behaviorally engaging with the service organizations each week. They rated their effort, on average, 7.63 ( $SD = 1.81$ ) on a scale of 1 – *Very Little Effort*, 5-6 – *Average Effort*, and to 10 – *Considerable Effort*. Table 3-1 displays the central tendency of the responses.

### ***Discussion***

Of the three types of engagement, students’ affective engagement was the most distributed between 1’s, 2’s, and 3’s. The largest group of students was in the mid-range, which meant they exhibited enthusiasm and interest but not belonging. This could be because students were more focused on the service than the service organization. For example, many students shared their connection to the kids they were mentoring but did not express the same attachment to the organization. Students may be behaviorally and cognitively engaged with the service

organization but their affective engagement may be more targeted toward service than the service organization. The issues and people whom they served may have been more compelling to students than the service organization and that was more likely to be exhibited in affective engagement responses than cognitive or behavioral responses.

Cognitive engagement was, by a large majority, medium. Students expressed one to two connections outside the service organization but did not express much depth beyond that. As measured by the engagement items, students in this sample were not as highly cognitively engaged as they were highly affectively engaged. However, cognitive engagement had the smallest percent of high engagement students than the other types of engagement. Students exhibited learning things from their engagement that went beyond the service organization but rarely exhibited several associations beyond the service organization. There could be other places they may learn more deeply about the issues and people they are serving, such as in courses or through personal experiences. Alternatively, the lack of high cognitive engagement could signify that students are not making the connections beyond the service organization that would signify deep learning.

Behavioral engagement was similarly distributed as cognitive engagement, with the large majority of students exhibiting medium engagement. The effort scale had markers of 1 – *Very Little Effort*, 5-6 – *Average Effort*, and to 10 – *Considerable Effort*. However, according to students' self-reports of their effort, on average they expended above average effort (i.e.  $M = 7.63 > 5-6 - \textit{Average Effort}$ ). This finding could be problematic and exemplify students' tendency to inflate themselves in self-reported measures or it could be that the students who responded to the survey exhibited more than average effort. Students reported expending three hours per week, on average, to the service organization. This included activities such as meetings, planning, and

direct service. Students perceived that they were behaviorally engaged with their service organization and valued their participation.

Behavioral engagement is typically measured in student engagement studies as the primary or sole measure of engagement. In this study, behavioral engagement: effort was more strongly correlated with the extent of engagement measure ( $\rho = .61, p < .001$ ) than affective or cognitive engagement were correlated to the extent of engagement measure (see Table 3-2 for all engagement measure correlations). Students may also perceive the most important aspect of their engagement as behavioral, versus affective or cognitive. Affective and cognitive engagement were statistically significantly correlated ( $\rho = .33, p = .005$ ), although behavioral and cognitive engagement were not statistically significantly correlated to each other. This supports a three dimension construct of engagement because the measures were related but not so strongly that there were any threats of multicollinearity. Additionally, these correlations support the importance of measuring affective engagement. For this sample, affective engagement was an important aspect of this holistic engagement.

### ***Summary***

On average, students reported that the extent of their engagement was higher than average ( $M = 7.70$  out of 10). The measures were correlated to one another in such a way to signify they are related constructs but not the same construct. This finding is important to affirm the significance of measuring affective engagement, which is often overlooked in student engagement research. Overall, the extent of student's engagement was medium to medium-high.

#### **Question 4: Experience of affective and cognitive engagement**

4. How do undergraduate students experience their affective and cognitive engagement in service organizations?

Two items on the questionnaire asked students about their affective and cognitive engagement: “Describe your feelings towards the service organization.” and “What have you learned from the service organization?” A phenomenological research perspective was used to approach the qualitative analysis. First, horizontalization was conducted by identifying meaning units within the responses that related to the research question. Next, the meaning units were reduced to clusters, which were further defined as the meaning units were combined. Finally, the clusters were studied to synthesize them into broader themes in order to describe the experience of the students in the sample (see Figure 4-1 for a representation of the qualitative analysis process). Figures 4-2 and 4-3 show the themes and clusters for cognitive and affective engagement, respectively. To write about the phenomenon in response to the research question, the meaning units were revisited to create a textural, and subsequently, a structural description of the data with quotes from the students’ responses (Moustakas, 1994).

#### ***Affective Engagement***

In the responses to the question “Describe your feelings towards the service organization.” I looked for themes that demonstrated the phenomenon of affective engagement in a service organization for the undergraduate students in this study. There were several broad clusters that best summarized the data. The clusters were narrowed into two major themes: barriers to engagement and benefits and reasons to serve. The clusters composing the barriers to

engagement were scheduling and governance. The clusters composing the benefits and reasons to serve were more extensive and included a passion for service, the issues, and/or the people; a significant impact on students' college experience and identity; an opportunity to build relationships; and a positive motivation to get off campus and be in and part of the community.

Students described scheduling conflicts or governance barriers that impeded their affective engagement. Ten students expressed their appreciation for the experience with a negative ending that seemingly negated the appreciation. For example, one student stated "it was good but...", which diminished the positive portion of their statements. Applying Kahu's (2013) conceptual framework, this exemplified the importance of the influences of engagement, such as the structural influence of the student lifeload and the psychosocial influences of university support and staff. The student lifeload concerns were mainly about scheduling. Undergraduate students often have competing demands on their time and it is difficult to fit everything in. Students with this concern said their involvement was "very time consuming but very rewarding" and that "[they] wish[ed] that [they were] able to participate this year, but could not due to time commitments."

The governance of the service organizations was also a noted barrier to students. Although two students specifically praised the organization of the groups and the leaders saying they "facilitate[ed] good interactions" and were "impressed with the level of dedication from the leaders," there were concerns by two students that some service organizations were not well run. Students expressed frustration that exemplified an interest in being more engaged but feeling disconnected from the organization because of disorganization or inflexibility. One student stated how they "wish[ed] [they] did more to retain leaders and have a lower turnover rate" and another stated how the "people running the overall program were very inflexible." These descriptions of

ways in which students met barriers to their engagement were important to understand their experiences. However, it was much more common for students to express being pleased with the service organizations. Of the 91 responses, 79 were positive (86.81%).

As with the feeling of passion, 11 students expressed the deep impact the engagement had on their perceptions of their college experience, their career goals, and their identities. One of the students stated: “The service organizations I have been a part of has [sic] shaped who I am today.” Similar to other students, this student’s identity was partially defined by their experience engaging in the service organization. Another student recounted how their engagement affected their career goals and said they benefited because they were “gaining experience for [their] future career goal, a teacher.” Engaging in service was more than a co-curricular program to these students. It was an opportunity to make an impact on the community, and while doing so, make an impact on themselves. Possibly one of the most poignant quotes from the students was from one who expressed their desire to “make college more than about myself.” This student saw their engagement as a way of impacting others.

Another benefit of students’ affective engagement in service organizations was the relationships they developed. Nine students who were serving youth described the depth of those relationships and the impact those relationships had on the youth they served. One student stated: “I think [this service organization] is an awesome way to connect with kids and not only help them with homework but start them thinking about high school and what they want to do after.” Students also formed connections to one another as demonstrated by eight students who described feelings of comfort, a welcoming environment, and an “inclusive community.” A student stated how there was a “strong sense of community [that] welcome[d] everyone.” Not only was



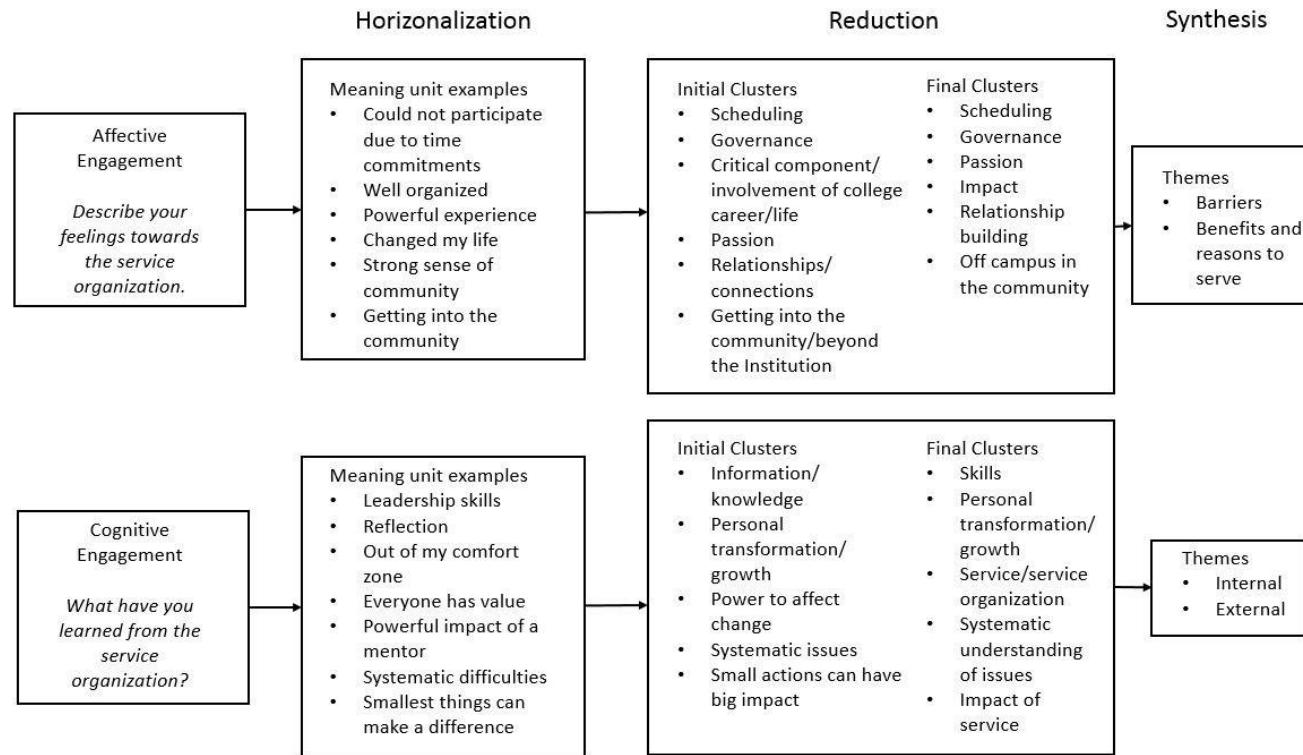


Figure 4-1. Qualitative Analysis Process for Question 4.

Qualitative analysis process using Moustakas's (1994) steps of horizontalization, reduction, and synthesis. The first column of boxes shows the student engagement areas and corresponding items from the questionnaire. The Horizontalization stage shows example quotes from the meaning units pulled from the data. The reduction stage shows the initial and final clusters of the meaning units. The synthesis stage shows the themes that were determined from the cluster

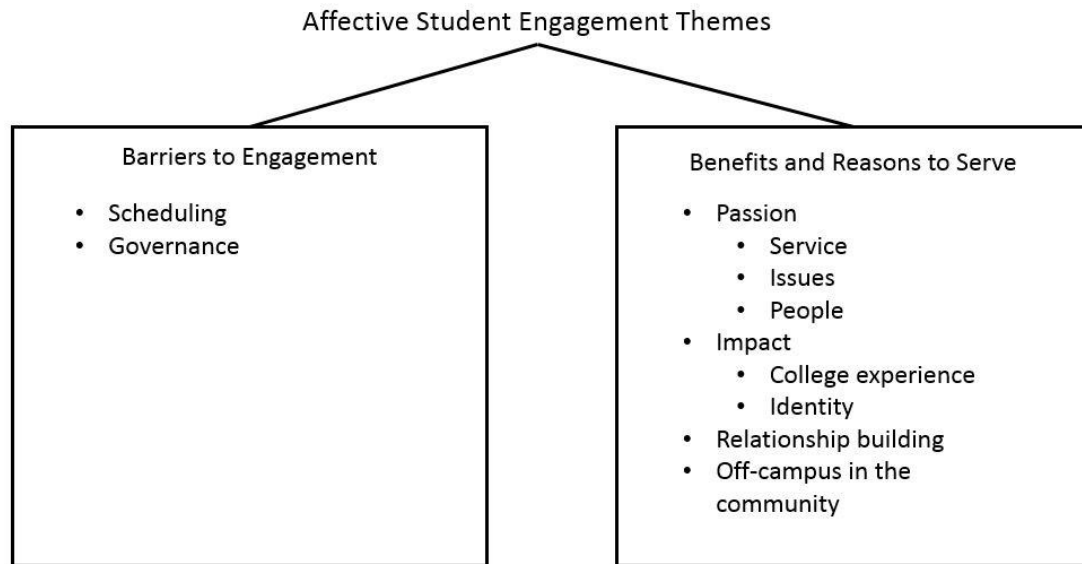


Figure 4-2. Affective Student Engagement Themes.

The two rectangles contain the affective themes of student engagement: barriers to engagement and benefits and reasons to serve.

building relationships with others in service important, but being open to *everyone* was an important aspect of building relationships and creating community.

Community was also mentioned by 15 students in terms of being a part of the community beyond the Institution. Students enjoyed having a reason to get off campus. Physical location was a highlight of their engagement in a service organization. It created an opportunity to be a part of the community, which many were not a part of before attending the Institution. One student said it was “very nice to leave the [the Institution] bubble” and another described how the service organization connected the community and the Institution. These opportunities to build

connections to other people as well as to the broader community outside the Institution were important to students' affective engagement.

In addition to the barriers and benefits of affective engagement in the service organizations, I also looked for discussions of social justice, as this was the outcome of interest in this study. There were two people who used the exact term "social justice" in their responses to the affective engagement item. One saw the service they had completed as social justice work and the other expressed how their engagement deepened their understanding of social justice. The second student said: "[engagement in this service organization] has been the basis of my development within and understanding of all things related to addressing social justice issues." Although students were not directly asked to respond to their engagement in relation to social justice, it was not surprising to see the concept mentioned as an important outcome of service. Beyond the students who directly mentioned social justice in their responses, one response implied an understanding and appreciation of social justice issues. This demonstrated that students may be learning about social justice but not using the term in their responses.

### *Cognitive Engagement*

Students described what they learned from engaging in service organizations. I categorized their experiences into two major themes: internal and external learning. Internal learning included knowledge of the self, such as skills or their role in affecting change. External learning included information about aspects of service or the service organization, a systematic understanding of issues, and the impact of service. Overall, students expressed how their

engagement in the service organizations deepened their understanding of themselves, their community, and the issues for which their service was intended to address.

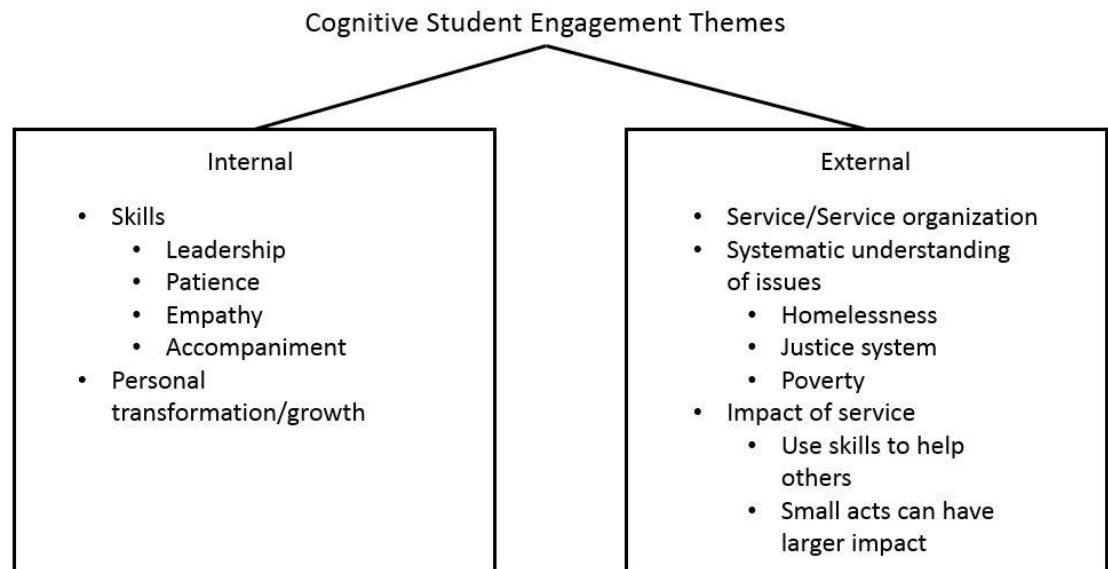


Figure 4-3. Cognitive Student Engagement Themes.

The two rectangles contain the cognitive themes of student engagement: internal and external learning.

Alexander and Judy's (1988) conception of the types of knowledge can be applied to students' cognitive responses. According to Alexander and Judy (1988), "procedural knowledge is the compilation of declarative knowledge into functional units that incorporate domain-specific strategies" or "knowing how" (p. 376). Conditional knowledge allows students to apply procedural knowledge at appropriate and opportune times. The internal learning that students detailed, such as "how to be patient" or how to build relationships via accompaniment, exhibited procedural knowledge they learned from their engagement. Students improved their skills in

leadership ( $n = 8$ ) and patience ( $n = 9$ ), in particular, by cognitively engaging in the service organization. Internal learning also exhibited aspects of conditional knowledge, with students learning “how to apply [their] skills to benefit others.” One student stated: “while I can't always change the situation I am seeing, I can learn what needs to be changed to support future change,” which exemplified their understanding of the appropriate conditions to apply the new skills and knowledge they had learned. Twenty-three of the 88 students (26.14%) expressed how they better understood their role in affecting change and that sometimes their skills were needed and other times they were learning something in that moment to apply to a future opportunity.

Many of the students described serving youth ( $n = 29$ ) and learned a lot about working with kids. They learned declarative knowledge, or “knowing what” (Alexander & Judy, 1988, p. 376), such as about child development, poverty, and socioeconomic status. Ten students also expressed a deeper understanding of the systematic nature and complexity of issues, with one student saying they learned the “systematic and cyclical difficulties of our justice system.” Opportunities to learn about issues and how they were being addressed were valuable to students: “I've learned that NGOs have a very different business model, and the subjectivity of volunteers and clarity of vision is an obstacle that many NGOs and service organizations have to overcome.” The last area that was common for students to have learned about was the impact of small actions. Students were hopeful regarding the broader impact a small action can have and the power that individuals have to affect change. Students stated how “the smallest things can make a difference” on others and themselves and that “simply being with others, not needing to fulfill any roles or obligations or 'do' anything is far more rewarding than I ever thought it could be.” Students' cognitive engagement in the service organizations not only taught them what but also how and why their service was important.

### *Summary*

The theme of personal transformation was strong in the responses, with students describing affective and cognitive engagement that went well beyond the meetings, direct service, and interactions with their peers. For the majority of students, they learned many deep lessons about themselves and the community. This learning was transferrable beyond the service organization and the service. For many students, their engagement impacted other areas of their lives. The engagement was a time of self-discovery and growth about themselves and their community.

Of particular interest was the depth of engagement shared in students' affective responses. Students' affective engagement was a defining aspect of their experiences. This affirms the importance of affective engagement to the study of undergraduate student engagement. Cognitive and behavioral engagement, although also important to study, do not fully represent the holistic engagement students are experiencing.

### **Question 5: Relationship between student engagement and social justice attitudes**

5. What is the relationship between undergraduate students' engagement in service organizations and their social justice attitudes?

A linear regression was run to assess the relationship between the independent variable (i.e. student engagement) and the dependent variable (i.e. social justice attitudes), while controlling for gender and college. A regression was run that included race as a control variable, given the results of the missing data analysis. Race was not a significant predictor of social justice attitudes ( $t = -1.11$ ;  $p = .270$ ) and was left out of the final regression. Variables were

entered in blocks in order to isolate the variance accounted for by the demographic characteristics and the independent variables in predicting the dependent variable. Blocked hierarchical regressions include separate blocks of variables ordered according to their importance to the regression model (Howitt & Cramer, 2008). The first block included variables for gender, college in which the students' major resides, and a computed interaction term between gender and college. The second block included the three independent engagement variables (i.e. affective, behavioral, and cognitive scores).

The assumptions of regression are independence of observations, linearity, normality, and homoscedasticity. Independence of observations was tested by plotting the residuals with the predictor variables and no dependence or patterns to the graphs were found. The linearity assumption was tested by looking at the same scatterplot of the standardized residuals and standardized predicted values. The points were evenly spread and no patterns were apparent so the data was considered linear for the purposes of the regression. A Normal P-P Plot showed that the error terms were normally distributed, which satisfied the normality assumption. The last assumption, homoscedasticity, was tested by assessing plots of the residuals and predicted values and showed homogeneity of variance.

The control and independent variables accounted for a statistically significant portion of the variance on the dependent variable,  $F(7, 79) = 2.38, p = .030$ . However, in both blocks, none of the variables were statistically significant. The regression was re-run excluding the gender and college interaction term, given that the interaction term was not significant ( $t = -.54, p = .593$ ) and there may have been issues of multicollinearity (see Table 4.4 for correlations). The new model with gender and college in the first block and gender, college, affective, cognitive, behavioral: effort, and behavioral: time was statistically significant ( $F(6, 79) = 2.59, p = .025$ ) and college

was a statistically significant predictor ( $t = -3.14, p = .002$ ) of SJ attitudes. The first block accounted for 33.00% of the variance ( $R = .33, R^2 = .11, R^2_{Adjusted} = .09$ ) and was statistically significant  $F(2, 79) = 4.72, p = .012$ . In the second block, the college variable was the only statistically significant variable. The second block accounted for 41.90% of the variance ( $R = .42, R^2 = .18, R^2_{Adjusted} = .11$ ) and was statistically significant  $F(6, 79) = 2.59, p = .025$ . G Power was used to estimate the power of the regression and the effect size (Faul et al., 2009). The power was estimated at .95 with an effect size  $f^2 = .21$  and  $\alpha = .05$ . This is an acceptable level of power (Cohen et al., 2003), which means there is confidence in the findings of the regression. Table 4-5 shows the full results of the regression.

Table 4-4. Correlations of Regression Variables in Model with Interaction Term ( $N = 80$ )

Measure	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Independent Variables							
1. Gender							
2. College	.038	-					
3. Gender x College Interaction	.678*	.748*	-				
4. Affective Engagement	.008	-.088	-.036	-			
5. Behavioral Engagement: Effort	-.107	.034	-.037	.214*	-		
6. Behavioral Engagement: Time	.125	.009	.111	.187*	.188*	-	
6. Cognitive Engagement	.063	.204*	.218*	.331*	.172	.040	-
Dependent Variable							



7. Social Justice Scale Score      -.089    -.321\*    -.289\*    .198\*    .108    -.044    .145

*Note.* College is a dichotomous variable: students in the College of Arts and Sciences and students in other colleges. \*  $p < .05$ .

Table 4-5. Hierarchical Regression Model of the Relationship between Student Engagement and Social Justice Attitudes ( $N = 80$ )

	Block 1: Demographic Characteristics	Block 2: Student Engagement
	b	b
Demographic Characteristics		
Gender	-.10	-.10
College	-.35 *	-.38 *
Student Engagement Dimensions		
Affective Engagement		.08
Behavioral Engagement: Effort		.02
Behavioral Engagement: Time		-.02
Cognitive Engagement		.19
R <sup>2</sup>	.11	.18
Change in R <sup>2</sup>		.07

*Note.* b = beta, the unstandardized regression coefficient; \* $p < .05$  level.

### *Discussion*

There was not sufficient evidence to state that respondents' gender and the engagement variables (i.e. affective, cognitive, behavioral: effort, and behavioral: time scores) predicted respondents' scores on the Social Justice scale. However, college was a statistically significant predictor of students' social justice attitudes. Controlling for gender and engagement, the SJ

attitudes of students in the College of Arts and Sciences is .38 units higher than students not in the College of Arts and Sciences.

It was interesting to note that there were differences in social justice scores by college, with students in the College of Arts and Sciences having higher SJ scores. This aligns with previous research and the curriculum in Arts and Sciences. It is the only college at the Institution that requires a social justice course. Although this study did not ask students if they had taken a social justice course, it could support the effectiveness of the course on students' social justice attitudes. However, it could also be that students with higher SJ attitudes choose majors within the College of Arts and Sciences. This finding and its potential causes are discussed in more detail in Chapter 5.

### *Summary*

The regression to predict social justice attitudes from students' affective, behavioral, and cognitive engagement was statistically significant with college as the only statistically significant predictor of SJ attitudes. The power of the test was high, which decreased the chances of Type II error. There was a statistically significant difference in students' SJ scores by college as well as several statistically significant correlations, including between college and SJ score and affective engagement and SJ score. This finding affirms previous research (Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005; Reason & Hemer, 2014) that found college and major as predictors of civic learning outcomes.

## Summary

This study measured the relationship between student engagement and social justice attitudes of undergraduate students who participated in service at the institution. The level of social justice attitudes in the sample was high ( $M = 4.22$ ,  $SD = 0.54$ ). Students' social justice attitudes did not differ by gender or college within or between service organization types. Students, on average, exhibited medium behavioral and cognitive engagement with affective engagement being more evenly spread over low, medium, and high engagement. The qualitative analysis explained the impact of engagement on students. Affectively, students described the barriers and benefits and reasons to serve as major themes. Cognitively, students described the internal and external declarative, procedural, and conditional knowledge they gained as a result of their engagement. College was a statistically significant predictor of social justice attitudes, with students in the College of Arts and Sciences scoring higher, on average, than students not in the College of Arts and Sciences. This finding further supports research on the differences in learning outcomes for students in different majors and colleges. Although this study did not control for entering characteristics, it supports the possibility of the impact of college and major choice on learning outcomes. The next chapter discusses these results in more depth as they relate to practice and future research.

## **Chapter 5**

### **Conclusion**

The purpose of this study was to describe the relationship between undergraduate students' extent and nature of engagement in a service organization and undergraduate students' social justice attitudes. Students engage in these organizations at different levels and it was hypothesized that the level of that engagement matters towards the achievement of social justice attitudes. A comprehensive definition of student engagement was used to measure the relationship between the extent and nature of student engagement in service organizations and social justice attitudes. Student engagement is “a psycho-social process, influenced by institutional and personal factors, and embedded within a wider social context” (Kahu, 2013, p. 768). This study operationalized Kahu’s (2013) conceptual framework of the three dimensions of student engagement into a quantifiable measure for use by researchers interested in assessing the extent and nature of undergraduate students’ engagement in service organizations as they related to social justice attitudes. The context chosen for this study was a Jesuit higher education institution in the Pacific Northwest. The Institution promotes social justice as one of its outcomes for students throughout all aspects of the learning environment (Institution, 2017).

### **Research Questions**

1. For undergraduate students participating in a service organization, what is the extent of their social justice attitudes?
2. Do undergraduate students' social justice attitudes differ by gender and college within service organization types (i.e. within groups) or by service organization types (i.e. between groups)?

3. For undergraduate students participating in a service organization, what is the extent of their engagement?
4. How do undergraduate students experience their affective and cognitive engagement in service organizations?
5. What is the relationship between undergraduate students' engagement in service organizations and their social justice attitudes?

### **Significance of Study**

The primary significance of this study was operationalizing Kahu's (2013) conceptual framework of student engagement, researching the relationship between student engagement and social justice attitudes for students who participated in service organizations, and finding a significant relationship between college and social justice attitudes. This study measured the three dimensions of student engagement by asking open-ended questions that were coded using a detailed rubric. The questions and rubric helped to further define student engagement using Kahu's (2013) framework and provided a way to measure the construct for future research. Although designed for a measure of student engagement in service organizations, the items could also be used for other co-curricular programs. The questions asked students what they felt towards the service organization, what they learned from the service organization, and the time and effort they exhibited while in the service organization. Service organization could be interchanged with another context for co-curricular student engagement, such as student government, musical groups, or the school newspaper.

### **Implication of Findings**

Students in the study reported high SJ attitudes. They were engaged at a medium to medium/high level in their service organizations and there were no differences by service organization in students' SJ attitudes. Students described their engagement affectively as barriers and benefits to their engagement and cognitively as internal and external things they learned. Student engagement did not predict their reported SJ attitudes. However, students in the College of Arts and Sciences were more likely to have higher SJ attitudes than those not in the College of Arts and Sciences.

There appeared to be a ceiling effect because of the concentration of students at the high end of the SJ scale. A ceiling effect is when scores have a negative skew and "it is almost impossible to measure improvement or to distinguish among various grades of excellence" (Pouwer, Snoek, & Heine, 1998, p. 2039). The Social Justice scale of the Civic Attitudes and Skills Questionnaire (CASQ) was not sensitive enough to detect differences in students at the high end of the range. This was also apparent in the responses by some students to the last question that asked if (there was anything else they had not been asked that they would like to share). Two students directly mentioned that the scale asked about equality instead of equity and an additional student eluded to the difference but did not use the word equity. One of the students even provided a resource: "I believe providing people with equity is even more important than equality. Illustrated Example: <http://interactioninstitute.org/illustrating-equality-vs-equity/>" They emphasized that equity was more important than equality. Future use of the scale should consider this issue and incorporate a distinction between equality and equity, which could help further distinguish students with high level social justice attitudes. Additionally, in the

exploratory factor analysis, the scale showed the potential for one or two factors. Two factors were retained to explain the model, given the factor loadings, scree plot, and eigen values. However, changing the wording of the equality item could provide a clearer delineation between the two factors and provide more distinction between people with higher SJ attitudes. This item and how it fits with the scale in a revised format should be investigated more closely with other samples and potentially revised for future research.

Given the ceiling effect, it was not surprising that there were no differences in SJ scores by service organization, while controlling for gender and college, and that student engagement did not predict reported SJ attitudes. The sample was too tightly packed and did not have enough variance to detect differences by service organization. The ANOVA analysis did have acceptable power, which means that it is likely this sample did not have differences by service organization in their SJ attitudes. This is heartening, if true, and aligns with previous research on the impact of service on SJ attitudes (Astin & Sax, 1998). Students who engage in service have been shown to have higher civic outcomes (Astin & Sax, 1998; Astin et al., 1999; Cruce & Moore, 2012; Marks & Jones, 2004; Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005; Perry et al., 2014; Weber et al., 2007) and this finding affirms the importance of participation in service being positively related to civic outcomes.

Students' depth of engagement, however, was not a statistically significant predictor of SJ attitudes, as measured in this study. College was a statistically significant predictor of SJ attitudes for this sample, which aligned with previous research (Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005; Reason & Hemer, 2014). It is unclear from this study if students with higher SJ attitudes are more likely to choose a major in the College of Arts and Sciences, if being in the College of Arts and Sciences increases SJ attitudes, or both. Additionally, students in the College of Arts and

Sciences are required to take a social justice course, unlike students in other colleges at the Institution. This study did not ask students whether or not they had taken a social justice course, but this could be a factor in why these students were more likely to have higher SJ attitudes than their peers in other colleges. Future research should focus on accessing a wider and more diverse sample to better test the relationship between student engagement and SJ attitudes, as well as the impact of college on social justice learning outcomes. Additional items that assess students' entering characteristics and their course selection could provide more information about this interesting relationship.

Students' engagement in the service organizations averaged at medium for the coded affective, cognitive, and behavioral responses and medium/high engagement for the extent of engagement item. High levels of cognitive engagement were only reported for 12.80% of the students. However, these students still reported high SJ attitudes. Interestingly, students reported above average engagement when asked the extent of their engagement. Markers on the scale indicated that a 6 was average engagement and students reported their engagement, on average, at 7.70. This demonstrated how students' self-reported engagement was slightly higher than the researcher-coded engagement items. It could be that students who perceived they were more engaged than the average student were more likely to fill out the questionnaire and/or that students inflated their engagement in relation to other students. The SJ scale did not have a similar corollary to test if students had inflated their attitudes. However, given these results, it is likely SJ attitudes were also slightly inflated over their true attitudes.

Of the engagement types, cognitive engagement had the most students coded as a 2 with medium engagement. The phrasing of the item, "What have you learned from the service organization?" could have contributed to this and not detected differences in that group of



students. Future research could include a larger range, possibly 1 to 5, and better articulate the differences in students in this medium group. Another item to correlate to this measure could also be beneficial. The correlations between cognitive engagement, GPA, and class standing were tested to see if there was a significant relationship between them. There was no statistically significant correlation between GPA and cognitive engagement ( $\rho = .09, p = .100$ ) and between GPA and class standing ( $\rho = -.22, p = .061$ ). However, there was a statistically significant weakly positive correlation between cognitive engagement and class standing ( $\rho = .30, p = .009$ ). Students in higher grade levels were more likely to have higher cognitive engagement codes. This could be that students in higher grade levels are more cognitively engaged. As they learn more in courses and through life experiences, they have more prior knowledge to associate with what they are learning from their participation. It could also be that students in higher grade levels responded in more depth or more articulately than students in lower grade levels and were therefore coded higher. Follow-up interviews could have helped assess the validity of this item. Future research should explore the depth of cognitive engagement between students in different grade levels as it relates to their learning outcomes.

The qualitative analysis of students' engagement responses was uplifting. Although there was certainly a range in the depth of impact the service had on students, overall the impact of being engaged in the service organizations was significant to students' development. This is the goal of funding and managing co-curricular programs for students and it was clear for these students that the effort by the administration was well worth it. The holistic development described by students will certainly last and influence future experiences and further growth.

Lastly, time, effort, and participation indicators of student engagement are not enough to fully represent the construct of undergraduate student engagement. The quantitized coded

responses exposed differences in student engagement that should be measured. Although student engagement was not significant for reported social justice attitudes in this study, other studies of co-curricular programs that have a wider variance in the outcome variable may better represent this relationship.

### **Modifications to Kahu's (2013) Conceptual Framework of Student Engagement**

Kahu's (2013) conceptual framework and research of student engagement have become well-cited in the short time since their publication. The framework offers a more holistic view of student engagement that served this study well to better understand and research the engagement of undergraduate student engagement in service organizations. However, improvements to the framework could help better represent the phenomenon, particularly when it comes to the influencers and consequences of student engagement.

In Kahu's (2013) image of the framework, there are clear influencers and consequences of engagement that include structural and psychosocial influences and proximal and distal consequences. These have bidirectional arrows showing the dynamic effect of these elements on engagement. Figure 5-1 shows an adjusted framework, based on the learning and research generated from this study. More emphasis is needed on the cyclical nature of engagement. When asking students to reflect on their engagement, the framework serves as a useful snapshot in time of all the elements, including the influencers and consequences. However, as a depiction of student engagement over time the framework as currently conceived is less helpful because the influencers may also be consequences and the consequences may also be influencers that keep students engaged over time. Students in their first year, for example, have ample opportunities to

continue their engagement in the service organizations and what was an outcome, such as social justice attitudes, may be the primary influencer to re-engage them in their second year. The model may be better represented as a continual feedback loop of these consequences becoming influencers and influencers becoming consequences.

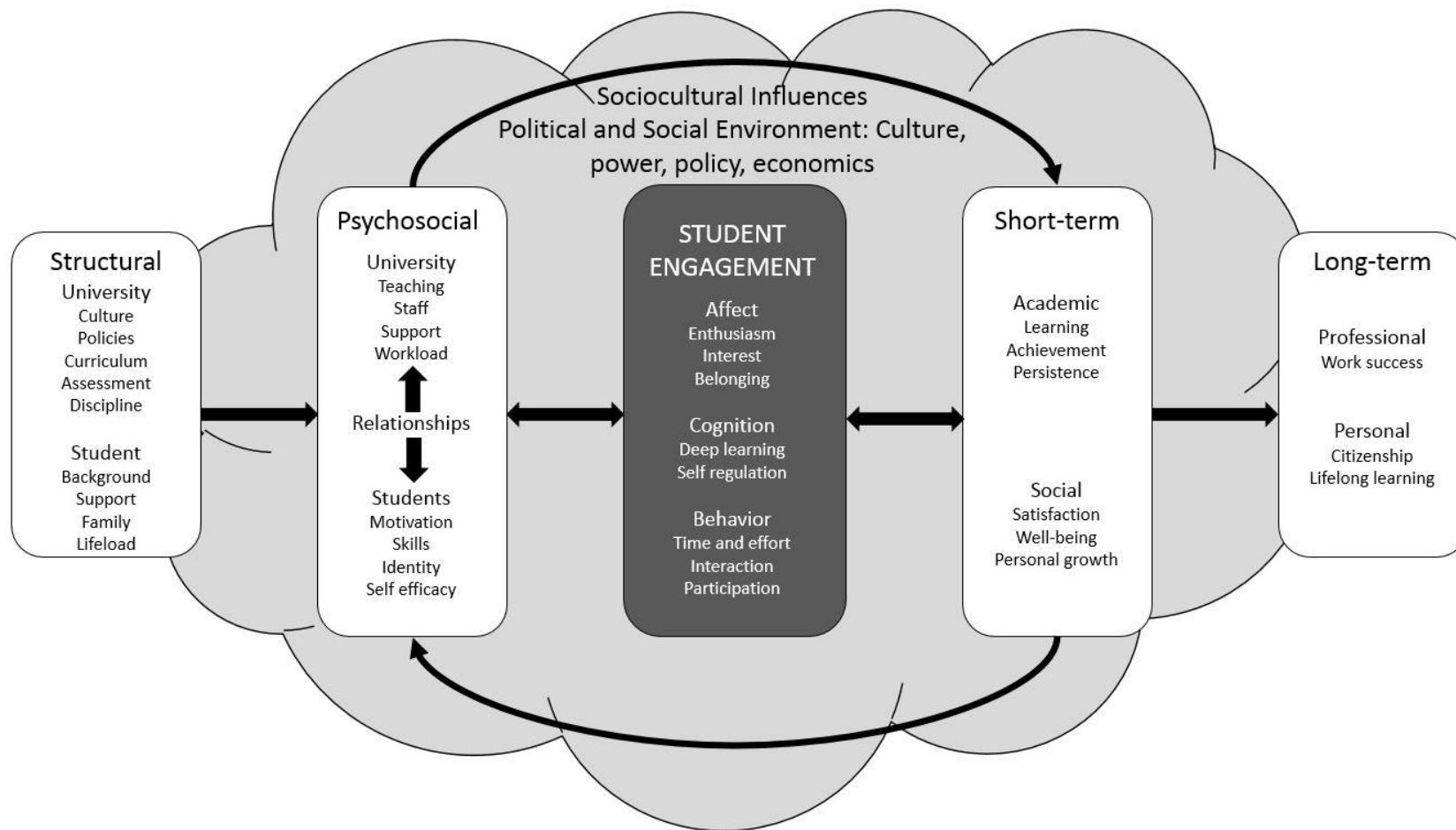


Figure 5-1. Recommendations for Kahu's (2013) Conceptual Framework of Student Engagement..

### **Limitations**

The primary limitations of this study were the sample size, the sensitivity of the Social Justice scale to detect differences in students with high social justice attitudes, and the underrepresentation of students of color completing the SJ scale items. Although over 6,000 students were emailed, service organization student leaders were contacted, and staff at the community service office promoted the completion of the questionnaire, only 129 students completed a significant portion of the questionnaire. Because of missing items, the sample size for the regression was 80 undergraduate students. This limited the generalizability of the results as well as the statistical analyses that could be conducted with enough power to ensure confidence in the results.

Students of color were, on average, less engaged in their service organizations and were less likely to complete the questions about social justice and civic engagement behaviors. Only nine students indicated they were of a race/ethnicity other than white. This was only 7% of the sample, whereas 23% of the community service office's students were of color. Given the small sample of people of color and the lack of a statistically significant difference in average SJ scale scores between people of color and white respondents, generalizations cannot be drawn beyond white students participating in service organizations.

Finally, as discussed earlier, the nature of the question in the SJ scale was such that differences could not be detected in students beyond a certain range. There may also have been influences of social desirability on students' responses to the SJ scale, however this was not tested for this study. This limits the generalizability of these findings.

### **Implications for Practice**

As Kahu (2013) concluded in her research on student engagement, accounting for all aspects of engagement is important. Affective engagement, in particular, was important in this study to fully represent students' engagement and it is the least measured aspect of engagement. Researchers and administrators alike should include affective engagement in the study and decision-making related to undergraduate student engagement.

Students in this study reported high social justice attitudes. These students achieved this learning outcome, which is exciting and heartening to see. It is unclear from this study the directionality of the relationship between participation in service organizations and social justice attitudes. It is likely that it is bidirectional: having high social justice attitudes leads to more participation in service organizations and more participation in service organizations leads to high social justice attitudes. Assuming this bidirectionality exists, it is important to continue promoting these co-curricular programs to students. For the students who participate in service organizations, additional ways for them to encourage others to participate as well as spread what they feel and know as a result of their engagement would be beneficial to their peers.

There were statistically significant differences in students' SJ attitudes between students in the College of Arts and Sciences and students not in the College of Arts and Sciences and college was a significant predictor of SJ attitudes. Although this difference could have existed prior to coming to college, it is important to note that students not in the College of Arts and Sciences may need more interventions to improve their SJ attitudes. Their attitudes were still high, but the students in this study have also engaged in a service organization whereas their peers within their college may not have. Finding ways to expose students to these opportunities

in all colleges, whether through service-learning or service organization engagement is important to the achievement of this learning outcome.

### **Future Research**

There are several opportunities for future research, based on the findings of this study. Validation of the student engagement measures created for this study is important and could lead to broader insights as to the importance of affective engagement as well as better defining the differences in cognitive engagement. The rubric used in this study, based on Kahu's (2013) conceptual framework and understanding of student engagement, could also be applied to other co-curricular programs or student groups to assess the validity and reliability of scores in other contexts. The Social Justice scale of the CASQ needs continued study and modification to better detect differences in students with high levels of social justice attitudes; use of the instrument for students of color; and how it operates in relation to bias and social desirability.

Additional research is needed specifically on students of color and their engagement in service organizations. This study and sample poorly represented this group and extra effort should be made to account for their experiences. Only nine students indicated they were of a race/ethnicity other than white, which was 7% of the sample, whereas the community service reported that 23% of their students were of color in 2014-2016. The small sample in this study made it difficult to draw any conclusions. However, if they are truly less engaged than their white peers, why is this and what could be done to help improve their engagement?

The adjusted conceptual framework for student engagement needs validation. For this study, the consequence measured (social justice attitudes) seemed to be also an influencer. Kahu

(2013) listed psychosocial influencers within the student, such as identity and motivation, that would be affected by an increase in social justice attitudes. As described in Chapter 4, students expressed a change in how they viewed themselves because of engagement in service organizations and deepening motivation to serve others. For a student in their first, second, or third years, they may return to service because of the deepened social justice attitudes that have now become part of their identity. The framework needs further study based on this reconception of the elements. Additional research could also explore more of the elements of the framework and explore if there are other adjustments needed to better represent student engagement.

### **Summary**

Chapter 5 concludes this study on undergraduate student engagement in service organizations and students' social justice attitudes. Kahu (2013) proposed a new organization of student engagement than previously studied in the literature. Kahu's conceptual framework integrated several research perspectives on student engagement to organize student engagement situated between its influencers and consequences and within its sociocultural context. The framework, given how recent it was published, needs further research to assess the validity of this conceptualization. This study and its re-conception of the model is one of many necessary research studies to deepen the understanding of the relationships between the constructs in the framework and its relevancy or irrelevancy to undergraduate student engagement.

Boyer's (1994) emphasis on the importance of using the rich resources of the ivory tower to help others outside academia continues to be important today. Students who are exposed to issues beyond the campus, given opportunities to help, and build their self-confidence will live



out his goals and the mission of Jesuit higher education after they leave the campus. As one student described: “Everyone should be involved. It is such a fulfilling, enlightening experience that benefits everyone. It is also holds some of my favorite moments at this university.” Exposure to social justice issues and the empowerment to take action are impactful for students beyond college and warrant continued study.

## Appendix A

### Tables of Sample Characteristics

Table A1

*Target Sample for Dissertation Study at the Institution*

Name of Organization	Students Involved (~n)	Student Organizational Category	Purpose/Mission
Campus Kids	unknown	Mentoring	“Campus Kids is a one-on-one, campus-based mentoring program focused on helping children grades 4th -6th succeed in academics and relationship building” (Institution, 2015).
The Campus Kitchen	unknown	Student Engagement	“Campus Kitchens is a unique organization that combats the unacceptable amount of food wasted in our society by "recycling" unwanted but usable food to fight against hunger in our communities” (Institution, 2015).
Circle K	155	Philanthropy	“Circle-K is a community service organization that is run by students at [the Institution] and Kiwanis International” (Circle K, 2015).
Connections	unknown	Mentoring	“Connections is a one-on-one mentoring program that works with middle school students (grades 7-8) from local [City] Public Schools. Connections is designed to improve the academic and social success of its mentees” (Institution, 2015).

Eye-to-Eye	unknown	Mentoring	“Eye to Eye is the only national movement that pairs kids with learning disabilities (LD) and attention deficit hyperactivity (ADHD) disorder with similarly labeled college students. By utilizing an art-based curriculum, the mentors in our programs help kids with LD and ADHD build self-esteem as they embrace their abilities as different thinkers” (Institution, 2015).
[Institution] Athletes Mentoring for Excellence ([I]AME)	unknown	Mentoring	“G.A.M.E. uses athletics and social interactions to increase the self-esteem and resilience of middle school students” (Institution, 2015).
[Institution] Special Recreation ([I]SR)	50	Student Engagement	“Today we serve roughly 40 community members across our play and sports programs with the assistance of roughly 50 volunteer [Institution] students throughout the year” (Institution, 2015).
Homeless Outreach	unknown	Student Engagement	“Homeless Outreach is a program at [the Institution] that strives to provide opportunities for students that would like to aid the [city] community in dignifying, uplifting, de-marginalizing, and connecting with the homeless population” (Institution, 2015).
Knights and Setons	30 men, 30 women	Philanthropy	“The Knights and Setons are [the Institution’s] sophomore service clubs. Together, they serve the MI community based off three pillars of service, leadership, and respectively, brotherhood and sisterhood” (The Knights and Setons of the Institution, 2015).
SMILE	unknown	Mentoring	“SMILE is a program designed to help children improve their self-esteem and build positive identities” (Institution, 2015).
[Institution] Study Buddies	unknown	Mentoring	“[the Institution] Study Buddies is an after-school tutoring program working with youth in second through eighth grade” (Institution, 2015).



3.50 - 4.00 †	75	59.06%	55	1.96	52	2.04	64	7.41	57	2.92	62	4.30
3.00 - 3.49	46	36.22%	31	1.80	31	1.93	35	7.26	35	3.25	36	3.96
Below 3.00	6	4.72%	6	1.80	6	1.60	6	5.80	6	2.60	4	4.50
College	129											
Arts and Sciences †*	69	53.49%	53	1.94	50	1.90	58	7.53	54	2.90	55	4.37
Business Administration	18	13.95%	9	1.75	9	1.88	14	7.31	12	3.50	15	3.80
Education	12	9.30%	10	2.22	10	2.33	11	8.80	10	4.42	10	4.36
Engineering and Applied Science	11	8.53%	10	1.67	10	2.00	10	5.56	10	2.89	9	3.74
Nursing and Human Physiology	19	14.73%	12	1.72	12	2.09	15	6.50	14	2.27	14	4.05
Service Organization Categories	102											
Mentoring †	50	49.02%	45	1.75	43	1.93	51	7.46	46	3.32	45	4.30
Philanthropy	4	3.92%	2	3.00	2	2.50	3	8.67	2	6.25	3	4.21
Service Immersion	11	10.78%	10	2.00	10	2.00	12	2.55	10	1.50	12	4.36
Student Engagement	37	36.28%	31	2.10	31	2.03	35	6.97	35	2.94	35	4.12
Membership Status	102											
General Member †	79	77.45%	63	1.78	62	1.92	76	7.07	70	2.45	71	4.19
Leader	23	22.55%	22	2.33	22	2.19	23	8.72	23	4.98	22	4.31

Note. † Mode; \*SJ scale score statistically significantly higher than other groups within the characteristic

## Appendix B

### Variables and Corresponding Scales or Items

#### Independent variables

##### **Engagement.**

1. To what extent are you engaged with the service organization?
2. Describe your feelings towards the service organization.
3. What have you learned from the service organization?
4. During the academic year, approximately how many hours per week do you spend participating in this organization's activities (e.g. time spent in meetings, planning, and direct service)?
5. Please rate the effort you put into the service organization.

##### **Civic Engagement Scale (CES) from Doolittle and Faul (2013).**

##### *Civic engagement behaviors.*

1. I am involved in structured volunteer position(s) in the community.
2. When working with others, I make positive changes in the community.
3. I help members of my community.
4. I stay informed of events in my community.
5. I participate in discussions that raise issues of social responsibility.
6. I contribute to charitable organizations within the community.

#### Dependent variables

##### **Civic Attitudes and Skills Questionnaire (CASQ) from Moely et al. (2002).**

##### *Social justice attitudes.*

1. I don't understand why some people are poor when there are boundless opportunities available to them.
2. People are poor because they choose to be poor.
3. Individuals are responsible for their own misfortunes.
4. We need to look no further than the individual in assessing his/her problems.
5. In order for problems to be solved, we need to change public policy.
6. We need to institute reforms within the current system to change our communities.
7. We need to change people's attitudes in order to solve social problems.
8. It is important that equal opportunity be available to all people.

## Appendix C

### Questionnaire

Consent for Exempt Research  
The Pennsylvania State University

Thank you for participating in this research study on **student engagement in service organizations at [the Institution]!**

Title of Project: Student Engagement in Service Organizations  
Principal Investigator: Melisa Ziegler, M.A., Ph.D. candidate, Educational Psychology  
Telephone Number: 253-906-9586  
Advisor: Dr. Stephanie L. Knight  
Advisor Telephone Number: 814-865-2524

#### Purpose

You are invited to participate in a research study of students at [the Institution] involved in service organizations. The results will provide important information about students' attitudes and behaviors and their relationship to service engagement.

#### Procedures

The survey will take about 15 minutes to complete. Please answer the questions as openly and honestly as possible. You must be 18 years of age or older to participate. Please note that you can choose to withdraw your responses at any time before you submit your answers. Your participation and responses will be anonymous. At the end of the survey, you will be asked for your name and email address if you are interested in entering a drawing for one of five, \$25 Amazon gift cards. Your name and email address will not be linked to your responses and will not be shared.

If you have questions or concerns, you can contact Melisa Ziegler at 253-906-9586. If you have questions regarding your rights as a research subject or concerns regarding your privacy, you may contact the Office for Research Protections, Pennsylvania State University, at 814-865-1775.

Your participation is voluntary and you may decide to stop at any time. You do not have to answer any questions that you do not want to answer.

You must be 18 years of age or older to participate. Your participation implies your voluntary consent to participate in the research.

Thank you for taking the time to complete this questionnaire! Your responses will greatly benefit the [community service office] as well as research on student engagement in service organizations.

Kind regards,  
Melisa Ziegler, B.B.A., M.A.  
Ph.D. Candidate, Educational Psychology  
The Pennsylvania State University  
University Park, PA 16802  
253-906-9586  
melisa@psu.edu



**Introduction Questions**

If you are concerned that your anonymity will be compromised by some (or all) of the questions, please keep in mind that individuals will not be identified and only group data will be reported. In addition, group data for groups that may be small enough to compromise identity will not be reported. Instead, groups will be combined to eliminate the potential for individuals to be identified from their responses.

1. What is your gender identity?
  - a. Man
  - b. Transgender
  - c. Woman
  
2. What is your ethnicity/race? Please select all that apply.
  - a. African
  - b. African American/Black (not Latino(a)/Chicano(a)/Hispanic)
  - c. Alaskan Native
  - d. Asian
  - e. Asian American
  - f. Southeast Asian
  - g. Caribbean/West Indian
  - h. Caucasian/White (not Latino(a)/Chicano(a)/Hispanic)
  - i. Indian Subcontinent
  - j. Latino(a)/Chicano(a)/Hispanic
  - k. Middle Eastern
  - l. Native American Indian
  - m. Pacific Islander/Hawaiian Native
  - n. Other (please specify)
  
3. What is your religious or spiritual affiliation? Mark all that apply.
  - a. Animist
  - b. Anabaptist
  - c. Agnostic
  - d. Atheist
  - e. Baha'i
  - f. Baptist
  - g. Buddhist
  - h. Eastern Orthodox
  - i. Episcopalian
  - j. Hindu
  - k. Jehovah's Witness
  - l. Jewish

- m. Latter Day Saint (Mormon)
- n. Lutheran
- o. Mennonite
- p. Methodist
- q. Moravian
- r. Muslim
- s. Native American Traditional Practitioner
- t. Nondenominational Christian
- u. Pagan
- v. Pentecostal
- w. Presbyterian
- x. Quaker
- y. Roman Catholic
- z. Seventh Day Adventist
- aa. Shamanist
- bb. Sikh
- cc. Unitarian Universalist
- dd. United Church of Christ
- ee. Wiccan
- ff. Spiritual, but no religious affiliation
- gg. No affiliation

4. What is your class standing?
- a. First-Year
  - b. Sophomore
  - c. Junior
  - d. Senior
  - e. Fifth+ Year Senior
  - f. Graduate (taking graduate classes)
5. In which types of student organizations/clubs are you involved? (Mark all that apply.)
- a. Academic and Honor Societies (Debate Team, Pre-Professional organizations, etc.)
  - b. Awareness and Political (Red Cross Club, Speak Up!, etc.)
  - c. Career and Professional (Alpha Kappa Psi, Formula [the Institution], etc.)
  - d. Club Sports
  - e. Community and Volunteer (Circle K, Knights, Setons, etc.)
  - f. Cultural (Chinese Club, La Raza, etc.)
  - g. Performance, Visual, and Fine Arts (Dance Team, Game Design, etc.)
  - h. Pre-Professional (Collegiate DECA, Human Physiology Club, etc.)

- i. Religious/Spiritual (Jewish Bulldogs, THIRST, etc.)
  - j. Other
6. Where do you live?
- a. Residence hall
  - b. On-campus apartment
  - c. Off-campus residence managed by [the Institution] Housing and Residence Life (house, apartment, etc.)
  - d. Off-campus residence **not** managed by [the Institution] Housing and Residence Life (house, apartment, etc.)
  - e. With parent(s)/family/relative(s)
7. What is your current overall grade point average? (on a 4.0 scale) If this is your first semester and you do not have a GPA, please enter 0.
8. First major: What is your current or intended major of study? Mark all that apply.
9. Second major: What is your current or intended major of study? Mark all that apply.
10. First minor: What is your current or intended minor of study? Mark all that apply.
11. Second minor: What is your current or intended minor of study? Mark all that apply.
12. Third minor: What is your current or intended minor of study? Mark all that apply.

### **Service Engagement**

Please read and answer each question carefully. For each answer, click on/fill in the appropriate oval/square or fill in the text box. If you want to change an answer, click on/fill in the oval/square of your new answer and your previous response will be erased. You may decline to answer specific questions.

13. In which of the following service/philanthropic organization(s) were you involved? Mark all that apply.
- a. Campus Kids
  - b. The Campus Kitchen
  - c. Circle K
  - d. Connections
  - e. Eye-to-Eye

- f. [the Institution] Athletes Mentoring for Excellence ([I]AME)
- g. [the Institution] Special Recreation ([I]SR)
- h. [the Institution] Study Buddies
- i. Homeless Outreach
- j. Justice in January: San Diego
- k. Justice in January: Tucson
- l. Knights and Setons
- m. Mission: Possible, Boise
- n. Mission: Possible, Denver
- o. Mission: Possible, Knoxville
- p. Mission: Possible, Neah Bay
- q. Mission: Possible, New York
- r. Mission: Possible, Portland
- s. Mission: Possible, San Francisco
- t. Mission: Possible, St. Louis
- u. Mission: Possible, Tacoma
- v. Reality Camp
- w. SMILE
- x. [the Institution] Volunteer Corps
- y. [I]ESST
- z. Other
- aa. Other
- bb. Other

14. With which organization were you most engaged?

- a. Campus Kids
- b. The Campus Kitchen
- c. Circle K
- d. Connections
- e. Eye-to-Eye
- f. [the Institution] Athletes Mentoring for Excellence ([I]AME)
- g. [the Institution] Special Recreation ([I]SR)
- h. [the Institution] Study Buddies
- i. Homeless Outreach
- j. Justice in January: San Diego
- k. Justice in January: Tucson
- l. Knights and Setons
- m. Mission: Possible, Boise
- n. Mission: Possible, Denver
- o. Mission: Possible, Knoxville
- p. Mission: Possible, Neah Bay

- q. Mission: Possible, New York
- r. Mission: Possible, Portland
- s. Mission: Possible, San Francisco
- t. Mission: Possible, St. Louis
- u. Mission: Possible, Tacoma
- v. Reality Camp
- w. SMILE
- x. [the Institution] Volunteer Corps
- y. [I]ESST
- z. Other
- aa. Other
- bb. Other

Please use the organization you chose in the previous question to answer the following questions.

15. In what academic years did you participate in this organization?
  - a. 2011-2012
  - b. 2012-2013
  - c. 2013-2014
  - d. 2014-2015
  - e. 2015-2016
  
16. What is your role in this service/philanthropic organization?
  - a. Leadership (e.g. President, Vice President, Secretary, Treasurer, Committee Chari, etc.)
  - b. General Member (i.e. no formal leadership role)
  - c. Other. Please describe.
  
17. To what extent are you engaged with the service/philanthropic organization?  
(Sliding scale from 1 – Not Very Engaged; 5-6 – Engaged; 10 – Very Engaged)
  
18. Describe your feelings towards the service/philanthropic organization.
  
19. What have you learned from the service organization?
  
20. During the academic year, approximately how many hours per week do you spend participating in this organization's activities (e.g. time spent in meetings, planning, and direct service)?

21. Please rate the effort you put into the service organization. (Sliding scale from 1 – Very Little Effort; 5-6 – Average Effort; 10 – Considerable Effort)

### **Attitudes and Behaviors**

Please rate your agreement with the following statements from 1 – Strongly Disagree, 3 – Agree, to 5 – Strongly Agree. Please consider the community referenced below to be inclusive of your community at [the Institution], within [the city], and your hometown. I am involved in structured volunteer position(s) in the community.

- 22. In order for problems to be solved, we need to change public policy.
- 23. People are poor because they choose to be poor.
- 24. I stay informed of events in my community.
- 25. I contribute to charitable organizations within the community.
- 26. We need to look no further than the individual in assessing his/her problems.
- 27. I participate in discussions that raise issues of social responsibility.
- 28. We need to institute reforms within the current system to change our communities.
- 29. I don't understand why some people are poor when there are boundless opportunities available to them.
- 30. We need to change people's attitudes in order to solve social problems.
- 31. It is important that equal opportunity be available to all people.
- 32. Individuals are responsible for their own misfortunes.
- 33. When working with others, I make positive changes in the community.
- 34. I help members of my community.

### **Thank you!**

35. Is there anything you weren't asked that you think is important to share or do you have any additional comments regarding the items on the questionnaire?

Thank you for participating in this valuable research study! We appreciate you taking the time to help us learn more about service engagement at [the Institution].

In appreciation for your participation, you may enter into a drawing for one of five, \$25 Amazon gift cards. Your name and email address will not be linked to your responses and your information will not be shared.

36. Name

37. Email Address

## Appendix D

### Student Engagement Rubric and Responses

Table D1

*Student Engagement Rubric*

Engagement Dimension	Code	Description		Examples
Affect	1	Describes little to no enthusiasm, interest, and belonging toward the organization with a primary focus on enthusiasm	I really enjoy this organization.	An easy way to volunteer when I can and want, without much commitment.
	2	Describes feelings of enthusiasm and interest toward the organization with little to no expression of belonging	Fun way to volunteer and spend time with children, show your leadership qualities	It is a great way to engage in the community and make a difference.
	3	Describes feelings that exhibit strong connections to the organization via enthusiasm, interest, and/or belonging	In this organization I have always felt welcome. It has created a warm community, where you can develop deep personal friendships and connections.	This is an extremely amazing service organization full of amazing volunteers and participants. Everybody is very genuine, kind, and friendly giving this organization a welcoming and fun atmosphere.
Engagement Dimension	Code	Description		Examples
Cognition	1	Describes learning that does not connect beyond the service organization	I have learned that it takes patience to deal with Middle Schoolers.	I learned how to effectively tutor math students of different ages.

2	Describes learning that exhibits one to two connections and associations beyond the service organization to broader ideas or areas of life	I am learned [sic] how to be patient and kind, and most of all, how to even the littlest acts of service can make someones day.	People with disabilities should be treated with respect and not be treated differently. A disability should not be a label but just thought of as a component of who the person is.
3	Describes learning that exhibits more than two connections and associations beyond the service organization to broader ideas or areas of life	I have learned about the powerful impact a mentor/role model can have on an individual without even realizing it. I have learned the importance of being intentional and authentic with one's actions as well as the significance of consistency. The youth that I worked with live challenging lives that are often extremely unpredictable and the opportunities for consistency this service organization offers is the solidarity they often need.	I've learned that NGOs have a very different business model, and the subjectivity of volunteers and clarity of vision is an obstacle that many NGOs and service organizations have to overcome. I learned about Lands Council Outreach programs as well as Whitworth In Cristo and the relationships the build at the Park Apartments downtown.

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Table D2

*Affective and Cognitive Engagement Responses with Original and Revised Codes (N = 89)*

Affect Response	Code	Revised Code	Cognition Response	Code	Revised Code	Included in Regression Sample
I can see the difference that I made in the group of students that I met, it was such a rewarding experience to watch the kids evolve over the year.	2	2	I learned a lot about dealing with kids and how to approach that interaction.	1	2	0
Fun!	1	1	You can get a lot from getting involved!	1	1	0
I love [the service organization]	1	1	Kids just want to be loved	1	1	0
I love it, used to do it more in High school	1	1	Love to serve others.	1	1	0
It was a very humbling experience and I really enjoyed it.	2	2	I learned to have an open mind and be accepting of everyone.	2	2	0
I felt very included. The program leaders were accommodating, and the members of the homeless community that I engaged with were welcoming.	3	3	I have learned to be a good listener, and to stay present with people even when I can do nothing for them but offer my presence.	2	2	1
My passion aligns with their purpose.	2	2	I have learned to work in chaos and how to manage behavioral issues.	1	2	1
I really enjoyed [the service organization] and I feel like it's a great opportunity for students to reach out to youth in the community.	2	2	I have learned how to let go of everything going on in my life and give all my attention to the kids in the program. They all deserve the best and it's so much fun to see them enjoying our time together.	1	2	1

Connections offers a the opportunity to participate in servant leadership in the greater [city] community. It is a program centered around impacting others and having a positive experience. It is a powerful experience that I would recommend to anyone.

3

3

I have learned about the powerful impact a mentor/role model can have on an individual without even realizing it. I have learned the importance of being intentional and authentic with one's actions as well as the significance of consistency. The youth that I worked with live challenging lives that are often extremely unpredictable and the opportunities for consistency this service organization offers is the solidarity they often need.

3

3

1

Although the program was beneficial to the children we served i think i could have been a lot better organized. Also, the people running the overall program were very inflexible and put me on a day that I could only attend a few sessions. Even when i told them in the interview that the day would not work they still put me there. Then when i emailed asking to be placed on a different day they said it did not matter how much i attended and i could not be moved. It in fact did matter how much i attended because i needed the hours for one of my classes. Also, I was not able to form strong bonds with the children because i was only able to come about 5 random times throughout the semester.

1

1

I have learned how to be patient with children and explain things in creative ways.

1

2

1

I think it is a wonderful and beneficial opportunity to be able to serve and mentor these children as part of the [the service organization] program. Seeing the children each week brings me so much joy.

2

2

I have really learned about the diversity of the children and the challenging things they have experienced in their short lifetimes but do not understand how serious their situations have been. For example, children talking about how their parents have gotten a DUI or are in jail, and how they are living with their foster parent because their mother died. It is shocking to see how normalized these types of challenges are for these kids, and it really shows me how significant it is that both my mentors and I are there to be mentors and role models for the children.

3

3

1

I absolutely loved it!	1	1	I have learned a lot about middle school development and about child poverty.	2	2	1
It has been the basis of my development within and understanding of all things related to addressing social justice issues.	3	3	How to be in accompaniment, how to be critical of myself, how to want to know more about being present and active for and with others.	2	3	1
What a fantastic organization. I have never met more selfless, loving, full, individuals. Certainly a highlight of my [the Institution] career.	3	3	I learned the power of relationships and simply being with one another.	2	2	1
I love it and just wish I had more time to devote to the organization.	2	2				0
i love the experience that service immersion creates through relationships that remind us that we are all so connected, through simplicity that reminds us what really matters, and through engaging in issues of social justice and the work that needs to be done.	3	3	Every person has infinite worth the importance of showing up we all have stories	2	2	1
Very great program. That plans an important role.	2	2	How to better work with children, how to work with kids from a variety of backgrounds, how to be more patient, and how to mediate situations	3	3	1
Great way to get out into the community and make college about more than myself.	2	2	That everyone has value, and they should be reminded of that.	2	2	1
I think caring for animals and promoting kind and fair treatment of animals is very important and I'm glad to be a part of it.	2	2	I've learned leaderships skills such as how to run a club, and well as different ways to help animals in the community.	2	2	1
Fulfillment and satisfaction when we were able to engage the kids.	1	1	How to be flexible and act more like a kid on a daily basis.	1	2	1

Well organized, good programming	1	1	Learned more about the socioeconomics of the [city] community	2	2	1
I really enjoy it and love getting to work with the kid I am assigned to tutor.	2	2	How to work with kids who need some extra help in reading and writing.	1	2	1
It was a great way to get involved in the community and impact the kids in some way. Middle school is a tough time for a lot of kids, and I think this organization is a good thing for them, although sometimes they don't show it and don't show up.	2	2	I learned a lot just about humanity and relating to the people in this community. I learned that although everyone has different struggles and is coming from different walks of life, we are all people with goals and aspirations to be great. We just need a little empowerment and encouragement.	3	3	1
I always looked forward to going over to [local school] and, being a volunteer in a kindergarten class, I felt somewhat like a mentor. It was really awesome to be a college student in a kindergarten classroom where they are just starting their education.	2	2	I've learned the importance of perspective as well as the importance of experiencing joy.	2	2	1
I'm glad that I'm able to help women and children in the [city] community.	1	1	I've learned how to apply my skills to benefit others.	1	1	1
I think the [service organization] is a great program that deserves more funding from the university; however, I wish we did more to retain leaders and have a lower turnover rate.	2	2	I have learned how to better interact with children as a role model and how to be patient with energetic children.	1	2	1
Very beneficial to both me and the kids I am mentoring.	2	2	I have learned that it takes patience to deal with Middle Schoolers.	1	2	1
It was a good time, but I only did it for a semester and discovered that working with kids was not the best fit for me.	1	1	I learned that working with kids is exhausting and I appreciated it a lot more when others talk about it. I learned I am, at this point in my life, not in love with working with kids.	1	2	1

I love [the service organization]. This service organization has become a place of comfort and joy for me. I am able to focus on my interactions with others than focus on my busy life at school.	3	3	People with disabilities should be treated with respect and not be treated differently. A disability should not be a label but just thought of as a component of who the person is.	2	2	1
In this organization I have always felt welcome. It has created a warm community, where you can develop deep personal friendships and connections.	3	3	I have learned the true meaning of working for and with others. I have learned that I am not a servant to this community. The disabled community graciously and lovingly welcomed me into their lives and I acted not as a servant but simply another member of this community.	3	3	1
I loved working with [the service organization]. It was one of the highlights of my college career.	2	2	I found what I'm passionate about and it's inspired me to apply my business degree to work with nonprofit organizations	2	2	1
I've enjoyed working with the older residents and hearing their stories	1	1	To listen to everyone	2	2	1
Incredible program that connects the [city] community and [the Institution].	3	3	More about disabilities and awareness, how to engage with people with disabilities, people first language.	2	2	1
I absolutely love working with at-risk youth. It is a huge passion of mine and makes me so happy.	2	2	I have learned the importance of patience and being slow to anger.	2	2	1
This is an extremely amazing service organization full of amazing volunteers and participants. Everybody is very genuine, kind, and friendly giving this organization a welcoming and fun atmosphere.	3	3	I have learned how to be patient and understanding and how to communicate better.	2	2	1
It is very time consuming but very rewarding!	2	2	I have learned how to be patient and how to adapt to unexpected challenges.	2	2	1
I loved my year of service with [the service organization]. I loved the variety of activities and service that we got to be involved in. I particularly enjoyed getting to hold a leadership role that allowed me to participate in more of the behind the scenes work.	3	3	I have learned how to better interact with communities and groups different than my own, how to manage my time, and I have gained experience planning and leading group service events.	3	3	1

It was very rewarding	1	1	Empathy	2	2	1
I am very very passionate about [the service organization].	2	2	I have learned acceptance and the value of connection through [the service organization].	2	2	1
It is a great program to help kids in the [city] community.	2	2	I have learned that the smallest things can make a difference to kids who do not come from the best homes.	2	2	1
[service organization] was one of the best service experiences I have been a part of.	2	2	I learned about the Makah Tribe in Neah Bay as well as the importance of social justice.	2	2	1
My spring break spent doing Mission Possible in Knoxville was amazing. I loved the experience so much, with that week being one of the best of college so far.	2	2	I learned a lot about social justice and the issues people face in Knoxville, as well as other cities across the country. I also learned that while I can't always change the situation I am seeing, I can learn what needs to be changed to support future change.	3	3	1
Enjoyed interacting with the children and activities involved.	1	1	Variety of ways through service they touch a child's life.	1	1	1
I love [I]SR. It has a strong sense of community and welcomes everyone with open arms. We have so much fun together and it is a great way to be involved at the university.	3	3	I have learned how important it is to not judge anyone. Everyone has the potential to be your greatest friend, and you cannot dismiss anyone based on your first impression.	2	2	1
It was fun and a challenge but I enjoyed it	1	1	I have learned that the tiniest thing can have the biggest impact in someone's life	2	2	1
I think it is great but it is always even better if you are interested in what you are volunteering in.	1	1	That there is more poverty in [city] than I have ever seen and there is immense need in helping get these children in schools out of poverty.	2	2	1
It was one of the best experiences in my life.	2	2	The systematic and cyclical difficulties of our justice system	2	2	1

It's so fun to spend time with the kids and really rewarding to be able to help them figure out their homework problems.	2	2	I've learned that even the annoying kids will warm your heart in some way.	1	1	1
I absolutely love what we do with the program and all who are involved in our efforts to create a more inclusive community.	3	3	I've learned a lot about organization, diplomacy, People First language, Accessibility Access for those with disabilities, and I've learned to appreciate the joy in little things.	3	3	0
Working in a transitional living center is difficult because each week the kids change as some have moved out and others move in. The organization itself is very welcoming and successful, but our large group of volunteers is sometimes unnecessary for the location.	3	3	It is not always necessary to plan volunteering. It's enough just to show up every week and be willing to play with the kids.	1	1	1
It's a fun way to get off campus	1	1	How poverty effects children	2	2	1
One of the highlights of my [Institution] experience.	1	1	I have learned that there is so much suffering and thus an even greater need for good people in the world to come to the aid of those less fortunate.	2	2	1
Fun way to volunteer and spend time with children, show your leadership qualities	2	2	Everyone comes from different backgrounds and how to resolve conflicts	2	2	1
Easy to get involved, and great service opportunities offered!	1	1	To not be afraid to get out of your comfort zone and try something you never thought you'd do.	2	2	1
I love what ZVC is doing for and to [the Institution] and its community. I continually see more and more people getting involved in ZVC, through word of mouth of others, and it lightens my heart.	2	2	From ZVC I have learned that so many students here at [the Institution] have a passion for service and helping those in need. I was raised being told that caring for others is vital, and I am so happy that so many people here feel the same.	2	2	1
It was a good experience and a good program.	1	1	That the children really love having mentors.	1	1	1

I really enjoyed the diversity of organizations that we worked with through ZVC. Each was geared toward a cause that we could relate to and discuss after our service work.	2	2	I've learned that NGOs have a very different business model, and the subjectivity of volunteers and clarity of vision is an obstacle that many NGOs and service organizations have to overcome. I learned about Lands Council Outreach programs as well as Whitworth In Cristo and the relationships the build at the Park Apartments downtown.	3	3	1
The service organizations I have been a part of has shaped who I am today. I have worked with amazing people and have helped a number of individuals which has also helped me grow. I have such a passion for service, and Setons (and ZZEST) has only heightened my love for service.	3	3	I am learned how to be patient and kind, and most of all, how to even the littlest acts of service can make someones day.	2	2	1
It is a great way to engage in the community and make a difference.	2	2	About how to better engage with children, specifically those in the [city] area, more about how poverty can affect behavior, and commitment to the organization.	2	2	1
I really enjoy doing service and feel that it has greatly impacted the person I have become.	2	2	I have become more empathetic. I have also become more understanding of the struggles faced by youth in many public schools.	2	2	1
Really like the concept, though I wish there was more bonding/planning between the members of the group. Like getting together to plan a specific activity to do at House of Charity.	1	1	The value of social interaction for both someone of homeless status and myself. Also, how to be sensitive in conversation to others' situations.	2	2	1
It's a lot of fun and allows me to volunteer while also gaining experience for my future career goal, a teacher!	2	2	It takes a lot of patience and communication skills to work with both the students and my peers in the organization.	1	1	1
It was a great one-on-one experience, and I felt like I was able to make a difference in my student's life by forming a relationship with him.	2	2	That one-on-one relationship building (accompaniment) is a crucial requirement in order to make service both meaningful and more effective.	1	2	1
I really enjoy this organization.	1	1	The importance of being both with and for others when serving.	2	2	1



I loved volunteering through Connections. The leadership team that was in place was absolutely incredible at facilitating good interactions between mentors and students. Although I didn't see this nearly as much as the leadership, I also really liked how supportive the school was of the program. For each year, the student I had was fairly disengaged at first (understandably), but that only made watching them grow through the year even more rewarding.	3	3	I think the thing that most struck me was the knowledge of how much a stable relationship. This is especially true when you're at such a weird stage in middle school, but it really is applicable to any stage of life. Even though I had a lot more external stability, I gained so much happiness through the consistency of the interactions with both the students and the group of college students I worked with. More than anything, I learned that there is so little to lose when you participate in programs like this, yet so, so much you can gain.	2	2	1
I like the level of time commitment it requires and the way it sends [the Institution] students out into varied areas of the [city] community.	2	2	The value of reflection and the way it can intensify the volunteer experience.	2	2	1
Struggling with motivations for service. As in, why do we serve? Indirectly for ourselves?	1	1				0
I think ZSB is an awesome way to connect with kids and not only help them with homework but start them thinking about high school and what they want to do after.	2	2	How to be a better leader, listener, and communicator.	2	2	1
I enjoy getting to work with younger kids and helping them to appreciate all that they can do with math, and apply it outside the classroom.	2	2	I have learned the importance of reflecting on my own school experiences as I try to teach others to appreciate math in the same way that I have.	2	2	0
It felt good to help others	1	1	Leadership	1	2	1
It hardly feels like service because the kids are so great! But at the same time we remember that what we are doing is for the community.	2	2				0
Everyone should be involved. It is such a fulfilling, enlightening experience that benefits everyone. It is also holds some of my favorite moments at this university.	3	3	I have learned a lot about myself. I have learned my personal strengths and weaknesses as a leader as well as the importance of the relationships we build and keep with others on impacting their lives as well as impacting my own.	2	2	1

I love [Institution] Volunteer Corps and its values. I love the various opportunities we can provide volunteers. I could go on forever.	3	3	A small taste of challenges faced when working nonprofit, (getting people to invest in your mission and get involved). I have learned how passionate I am in service and learning about different social justice topics and spreading this knowledge to volunteers.	3	3	1
I had a wonderful experience in the [I]AME program. I looked forward to working with the kids each week and my college experience was enhanced this past year by being a part of the program.	3	3	I learned how to interact and deal with middle school aged children while holding the leadership role and directing them. This was an important experience for me as I am going to be a high school or middle school teacher.	2	2	1
It is absolutely an honor to say that I was a part of the [I]USR program. I was impressed with the level of dedication from the leaders. I was overwhelmed with the caliber of the volunteers and the participants alike, each individual within that organization is full of life and smiles and love. I wish that I was able to participate this year, but could not due to time commitments.	3	3	I learned that just simply being with others, not needing to fulfill any roles or obligations or 'do' anything is far more rewarding than I ever thought it could be, so long as you do so with love in your heart and open eyes.	2	2	1
[I]USR is the most amazing organization I've ever been involved in. It made my heart grow and taught me a lot about developmental disabilities	3	3	I learned the value of each person and how important understanding and patience are	2	2	1
An easy way to volunteer when I can and want, without much commitment.	1	1	I learned how to effectively tutor math students of different ages.	1	1	0
I think it does good, but it's not my favorite thing.	1	1	Public schools are different than private schools.	1	1	1
It was a good experience, however, my schedule demands didn't make time for it.	1	1	Solidarity is singularly the most important part of the human experience.	2	2	1
A great organization. It is great way not only to bond with kids but with other [Institution] students who share a similar passion for service and giving back to the community.	3	3	I have learned how everyone is a leader. There are many mentors, however we all have different leadership skills that are useful for different situations. I have learned different ways to handle situations I may not have known before.	2	2	1

I really love the message that Eye to Eye has that it is their idea that has really changed these kids lives and my own life. Its really hard through to see the, for the lack of a better term, drama that happens with the national office. I feel that they have become out of touch with the work that they are actually doing. The [community service] office has been absolutely fantastic.	3	3	That what I have to say is important. It has honestly given me what I want to do in my life. It is my favorite part of [the Institution].	2	2	1
I love the service and opportunity to help people that don't have the same opportunities that I have had. Its also very nice to leave the [the Institution] bubble.	2	2	There is so much you can do to help.	1	1	1
Love doing service!	1	1	Importance of giving back. Time Management. Self-Discipline.	2	2	1
Very enjoyable; good experience	1	1	How to better communicate and interact with elementary school kids; how to be a good mentor	1	2	1
I thought that the organizations were very well organized and doing good things for the community.	2	2	Leadership, broadening my opinions	2	2	1
Loved it	1	1	How to be engaged with the community outside [Institution]	2	2	1
I think tutoring is often overlooked but such an amazing way to help students find their own self respect and worth through their own abilities.	2	2	Everyone learns differently and volunteers are best serving when adaptable	1	2	1
I like it	1	1	Kids need a good amount of attention and hanging out with them is fun.	1	2	1
Had a great time planting trees and learning about bioremediation	1	1	How to be involved with this sort of initiative and the reasoning why it is important to do what we were doing, which was planting trees and taking care of nursery plants.	2	1	1

*Note.* Codes were revised after interrater reliability and rater drift analyses. Participants included in the regression sample are coded as 1.

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